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HEARING

ON THE

BILL (H. R. 14798) TO ESTABLISH A LABORATORY FOR
THE STUDY OF THE CRIMINAL, PAUPER,
AND DEFECTIVE CLASSES,

WITH A

BIBLIOGRAPHY,

BY

ARTHUR MACDONALD,

*Specialist in the United States Bureau of Education, Member of the "Société
D' Hypnologie de Paris," and Author of "The Criminal
Man," "Les Criminel-Type,"*

HAD BEFORE THE

COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY.

WASHINGTON:

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1902.

The author has requested that the following or some similar resolution be considered by your County Bar Association :

Resolved, That we are in favor of establishing in the Department of Justice, at Washington, a laboratory for the study of the criminal, pauper, and defective classes, it being understood that such investigation is a development of work already begun under the Federal Government. That such study shall include the collection of jurisprudential, sociological, and pathological data in institutions for the delinquent, dependent, and defective, and in hospitals, schools, and other institutions ; that especially the *causes* of social evils shall be sought out with a view to ameliorating or preventing them.

The general purpose of this resolution is given in this Hearing before the Committee on the Judiciary of the U. S. House of Representatives.

For further consideration of subject, see Senate Document No. 400, 57th Congress, 1st session.

This document (166 pages) might be obtained by application to any United States Senator.

It would be desirable also that your *City* Bar Association consider the resolution.

Your *State* Bar Association has been requested to consider the resolution.

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HEARING ON THE BILL (H. R. 14798) TO ESTABLISH A LABORATORY FOR
THE STUDY OF THE CRIMINAL, PAUPER, AND DEFECTIVE CLASSES,
HAD BEFORE THE COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY.

APRIL 25, 1902.

Present: Hon. George W. Ray, chairman; Hon. John J. Jenkins, Hon. Richard Wayne Parker, Hon. D. S. Alexander, Hon. Vespasian Warner, Hon. Julius Kahn, Hon. Lot Thomas, Hon. S. L. Powers, Hon. David A. De Armond, Hon. S. W. T. Lanham, Hon. William Elliott, Hon. D. H. Smith, and Hon. H. D. Clayton.

The CHAIRMAN. Gentlemen, Mr. Arthur MacDonald, specialist in the United States Bureau of Education, is present and has been accorded a hearing on the following bill:

[H. R. 14798, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.]

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of Justice a laboratory for the study of the abnormal classes. That such work shall include, not only laboratory investigations, but also the collection of jurisprudential, sociological, and pathological data, especially as found in institutions for the criminal, pauper, and defective classes and as may be observed in hospitals, schools, and other institutions; also investigation of anarchistic criminals, mob influence, and like phenomena. That especially the causes of social evils shall be sought out, with a view to lessening or preventing them. That these results and those of similar work shall be collected and published from time to time.

SEC. 2. That there shall be a director of the laboratory at an annual salary of three thousand five hundred dollars.

SEC. 3. That the director shall have power to employ specialists to assist him in his investigations and such other help as may be necessary to carry on the work; that for all the expenses thus involved, together with the equipment of the laboratory, hiring of rooms, purchasing of books and periodicals, and so forth, is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, twenty thousand dollars, ten thousand of which to be available on the passage of this Act.

Mr. MacDonald said:

**A PLAN FOR THE STUDY OF MAN, ESPECIALLY THE CRIMINAL,
PAUPER, AND DEFECTIVE CLASSES.^a**

Three bills, introduced by Senators Nelson, Bacon, and McComas, and one as an amendment by Senator Hoar, and two House bills (all six bills of Fifty-seventh Congress, first session), introduced by Representatives Ray (New York) and Henry (Connecticut), have for their purpose to establish a laboratory for the study of the criminal, pauper, and defective classes. The word "laboratory" is here used in its broadest sense, including sociological data. Laboratory in its restricted meaning, referring to use of instruments of precision, is only one feature of these bills.

One of the most important objects contemplated is to take the data already gathered by the State institutions for the abnormal classes and combine and summarize them for more general use. This will encourage the States to gather further facts by more uniform methods.

^a Many points not considered in this Hearing will be found in Senate Document (by writer), No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

Such uniformity and the feeling that the results will have more general utility will encourage a deeper study of the antecedents and characteristics of inmates of the different institutions, especially those where children are confined.

Such methods, though requiring patience, are a most rational way of determining more definitely the causes of crime, especially in its beginning, thus enabling society to know how best to ameliorate or prevent crime.

STUDY OF MAN.

Anyone would suppose that the study of man, especially during childhood and youth, would be the most practical and necessary of all lines of inquiry. But, as a matter of fact, it is the most neglected of all studies. There are sciences of geology, botany, and zoology, but a science of living man as he is to-day does not exist. It is comparatively easy to arouse interest in expeditions to the North Pole or into darkest Africa; to engender enthusiasm in investigation of sun, moon, and stars; but it is very difficult to direct attention to the study of modern civilized man. Millions are given yearly for the study of rocks, plants, and animals, but almost nothing for the study of children. What could be more practical than investigations of human beings from childhood through youth to manhood? While facts in nature are very interesting and, no doubt, of importance, they can not have the direct practical value which facts about man himself possess.

The greatest of all studies is that of man himself as he is to-day. A scientific investigation of man must be based primarily upon the individual, who is the unit of the social organism.

If we are ever to have sufficient definite knowledge of living human beings that may become a science, it can only be done by the careful study of large numbers of individuals. The more thorough the study and the larger the number, the more useful such investigation can be made to society.

As in machinery we must first repair the little wheels out of gear, so in society we must first study the criminal, crank, insane, inebriate, or pauper, who can seriously injure both individual and community. Thus, a worthless crank, by killing a prominent citizen, can paralyze the community. The injury from such action is often beyond calculation. Our Government pays out millions to catch, try, and care for criminals, but gives very little to study the causes that lead to crime.

The study of man, to be of most utility, must be directed first to the causes of crime, pauperism, alcoholism, and other forms of abnormality. To do this, the individuals themselves must be studied. As the seeds of evil are usually sown in childhood and youth, it is here that all investigation should commence, for there is little hope of making the world better if we do not seek the causes of social evils at their beginnings.

The most rigid and best method of study of both children and adults is that of the laboratory, with instruments of precision in connection with sociological data. Such inquiry consists in gathering sociological, pathological, and abnormal data as found in children, in criminal, pauper, and defective classes, and in hospitals. Such experiments or measurements should be made as are of interest not only to sociologists, psycho-physicists, and anthropologists, but also to physiologists and pathologists.

It has been proposed to conduct such investigations under our Government by the establishment of a laboratory; for to gather a large

number of such data concerning a large number of individuals, and to compute, tabulate, and publish the results could not easily be undertaken by an individual or by a university, because of the expense involved.

QUESTION AS TO UTILITY.^a

But, it may be asked, what as to the utility of studying such questions? We think it is not only useful, but there is great need of such investigation. We should like to inquire, for instance, as to the utility of studying rocks and plants, arranging them, making chemical analyses of them, etc., if it is not to give a deeper knowledge of them, and thereby learn more about our planet? So the patient and extended study of man, especially children, is to gain a more definite knowledge about him and a deeper insight into his nature. The time has certainly come when man, as he is, should be studied as much as nature.

Much money has been given and great interest manifested for the discovery of new chemical elements or the search for unknown planets. We erect statues and found art galleries at great expense. These things may not all be immediately useful. Indeed, the highest art spurns even the idea of utility; and yet when it is proposed to study a child thoroughly to gain an insight into its nature, to find the causes of its defects, so that we may protect it and help it to become a good citizen, the utilitarian cry is heard. The time has come when it is important to study a child with as much exactness as we investigate the chemical elements of a stone or measure the mountains on the moon.

Why is it that there is so little definite knowledge about modern man? It is mainly because he has been studied so little. The first case in the history of this world of a thorough scientific study of a human being is that made on Zola^b in 1897 by a number of French specialists. Such a statement as this may seem hazardous, but it is literally true.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION.

Man has been studied in a statistical way as to his acts and thoughts in the past; but this method is necessarily inexact and uncertain, because the events are so far removed in time. It is not only difficult to understand the past in which we did not live, but also to distinguish between facts, inferences, and opinions as recorded by writers, who often had some special point of view and omitted important data. For this reason alone a science of history may be impossible.

It is only in investigations of man as he is now that facts can be dealt with at first hand.

MORE EXACT STUDY OF MIND NEEDED.

Rigid methods of research have until lately been confined to physics, astronomy, physiology, and other sciences; and when applied to man they have been concerned rather with his physical than mental side. It is only recently that more exact methods have been used in the study of man's mind. These methods were opposed and ridiculed by extreme doctrinaires, but such opposition has ceased almost entirely, and where it does exist it is due either to ignorance or to mistakes liable to occur in the introduction of new methods.

If the study of man is to be worthy of the name, rigid methods must

^a See article (by writer) entitled "A Laboratory for Sociological, Medical, and Jurisprudential Purposes," in *Amer. Law Review* for Nov.-Dec., 1901, St. Louis, Mo.

^b Results are given in article on Zola (by writer), reprint, 1901.

be applied to his mind as well as to his body. The most satisfactory and best method yet known is the psycho-physical method, introduced by Fechner and developed by Wundt into what is called "physiological psychology."

PSYCHO-PHYSICAL LABORATORY.

The first requisite to carry out this psycho-physical method of study is a laboratory containing instruments of precision.

In the study of man one of the greatest difficulties is the defectiveness and limitations of his senses. These defects have reference, not only to insufficiency of the senses to discover certain truths, but also to the errors they cause us to make.

The diurnal rotation of the earth, the distance of the stars, and the weight of the air are not appreciated by our senses, and often may seem contradictory to them. The sensations of cold and heat are not absolute, but merely relative to the temperature of our bodies, frequently misleading us. The illusions of sight, hearing, and touch point to the conclusion, accepted by modern psychology, that our ideas of the external world are the result of a long and unconscious education of the senses.

Science has destroyed the prejudice of the infallibility of the senses, and now finds its main help in the study of man to be in the use of instruments of precision. These not only correct the defects of the senses, but increase their scope, so that the results of investigation may be described more fully and determined more definitely.

LABORATORIES IN UNIVERSITIES.

While the initiative in psycho-physics came from Europe, it is in our country that it has developed to the greatest extent. A large number of laboratories have been established, most of which are in the universities. But the plan of these laboratories is mainly for pedagogical purposes. The research work is generally done by students desiring to prepare theses for their doctorates. While many of these theses are very valuable, a university could hardly extend such work to large numbers of individuals, for to gather the facts, compute and tabulate the results would involve clerical duties and other work not undertaken by universities. The psycho-physical work in the university is generally confined to small numbers of persons, who are a special class, so that it is doubtful whether conclusions obtained can always be applied to people in general.

The main object of a university is to prepare men for work, not to carry on their work.

NEED OF A LABORATORY FOR SOCIOLOGICAL PURPOSES.

There is need, then, for a psycho-physical laboratory different from those in our universities; that is, one not pedagogical, but sociological and practical, and of more utility to society directly.

The purpose of such a laboratory is to collect sociological, pathological, and abnormal data as found especially in children, and in the criminal pauper and defective classes, and in hospitals; to gather more special data with instruments of precision, and also to collect and publish the results of similar work in this country and Europe.

But it may be said that the time is not ripe for psycho-physical work on a large scale. This may be true of much of the finer experimental work carried on in our universities, some of which is an experiment with experiments. But the purpose of this laboratory is

to apply to large numbers of individuals only such experiments as are well attested. For if there is ever to be a sufficient definite knowledge of living civilized man, to become a science, it can only be gained by the study of large numbers of persons.

Conclusions depending on small numbers are useful and instructive, but if they are to carry weight they must be based on numerous individuals of all classes.

But the psycho-physical study is not all the work. Of no less importance are the sociological investigations involved, including the gathering of anthropological and medical data. In new work the field is always too large, and therefore it would be imperative at first to study in those parts only which will bring results most useful to society.

INVESTIGATION OF CRIMINAL AND DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

A special and very practical feature of a psycho-physical laboratory would be the study of the criminal and defective classes. As in machinery we must first repair the little wheels out of gear, so in society we must first study the criminal, crank, insane, inebriate, or pauper who can seriously injure both individual and community. The community is most directly concerned, for it pays out millions to catch, try, and care for criminals, but almost nothing to study the causes that lead to crime. Thus, in 1890 the expenses of all our penal institutions were more than \$12,000,000. This does not include the cost of criminal or police courts, of the property stolen, or the untold injury to society. A worthless criminal or crank kills a prominent citizen; the injury from such action is often beyond calculation.

CHILDREN SHOULD BE STUDIED FIRST.

However valuable the results of the investigation of man may be, they will always have an additional value when coming from the study of children. For whatever may be found of a detrimental character in both mind and body will always have a much better chance of correction in the child than in the adult.

We can not expect to lessen crime and dangerous forms of abnormality unless we study the causes; this is the first requisite in all rational procedure; and these causes should be sought out at their beginning. Special emphasis is therefore laid on the investigation of criminal and abnormal children.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO FURTHER STUDIES.

It would be important to find what physical and mental characteristics are common to criminal children, and whether such characteristics are due more to the child's nature or more to his environments. Only thorough and patient study of large numbers of children can answer such questions; theory and speculation based on a few facts can not, but they may accomplish good in calling attention to the subject. It is generally believed, but not proved, that crime is mostly due to surroundings; if this can be determined, then there is a great hope of lessening it, for it is much easier to change the surroundings of a child than to change its nature.

INVESTIGATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Much study has been devoted to children in our public schools; mistakes have doubtless been made by those with more enthusiasm than training. But this is the case with all new lines of inquiry. Yet

there are very practical matters we should know as to our schools. To establish the measure of the work according to the strength of the pupil is fundamental to health, for overtaxing the powers of the young can leave its mark for life.

What is the maximum work suitable to a child in the different periods of development in its school life? And can this maximum be injurious at times, as at puberty, when all the vital force may be required for growth? To answer such practical questions we must know the physiology of normal growth, its rate of increase or decrease, and what influences cause such increase or decrease.^a

UNRULY AND REFORMATORY CHILDREN.

It would be desirable to find what physical and mental traits are common to unruly school children and children in reformatories. If there is nothing peculiar as compared with children in general this is important to know. In like manner it would be interesting to know what characteristics, if any, are in common between the feeble-minded in our institutions and dull children in our schools. These and similar inquiries, when made with care and discretion, might enable us to foresee with some probability the special dangers that this and that child may be subject to, and thus to protect many children from temptations and conditions that otherwise might ruin them.

IMPORTANCE OF LARGE NUMBERS.

When the number of persons studied is large many subdivisions can be made, and in this way some of the most important, yet sometimes unexpected, results are reached. It would be well to know the difference, not only between children of the professional, mercantile, and laboring classes, but between those with American parents and foreign parents. Then, if the numbers were large enough to admit further subdivisions, we might find the difference between children whose father is American but mother foreign born and those whose mother is American and father foreign born. In all such questions, if there is no striking difference it is important to know it. Thus the influence of marriage between different races or nationalities upon the offspring might be determined more definitely.

If it should be found, for instance, from the comparison of large numbers, where all possibility of accident or coincidence is eliminated, that the difference between certain classes of children, such as the criminal, from children in general is quite marked, the question would arise whether such difference is due mainly to heredity or to unfavorable surroundings. In cases where the crime or defect is due to heredity the treatment would be quite different from those in which environment is the cause.

CRIMINOLOGICAL STUDY.^b

As an illustration of a criminological study, we give below the case of H. But before doing this a few general remarks on criminology may not be out of place.

Three divisions may be observed in criminological studies: First, a summary and classification of results already known (this may be

^a For further discussion see "Experimental Study of Children" (by writer), reprint from report of Commissioner of Education for 1897-98, Washington, D. C.

^b For relation to patho-social questions, see Senate Document No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

called general criminology); second, an investigation of individual criminals, or special criminology; and third, a consideration of methods and institutions for the prevention and repression of crime, or practical criminology, including prisons, reformatories, police systems, etc. The first is historical, the second scientific, the third, as its name indicates, is more directly related to society. But it is in special criminology that most interest of late has been shown. It is pervaded with the scientific spirit which considers the investigation of causes as necessary before any rational treatment of crime can be expected.

CRIMINALS NOT SO ABNORMAL.

Should a philosopher desire to study normal human nature experimentally, he could do this best in prison, for probably nine-tenths of prisoners are criminals by occasion; that is, their crime is due mainly to bad social conditions; their personality differs little or none at all from that of the average man, so that any results gained here relate to normal man. But there is an additional advantage; questions can be asked and investigations permitted that would be difficult with normal man outside of prison. The prisoner has much less to lose, and will often make confessions that few outside of prison would care to make, giving the deepest insight into human nature. Another advantage is that the exact conditions, such as regularity in habits of life, diet, etc., are known, and thus a more favorable condition of scientific inquiry is afforded. This is especially true in reformatories, industrial schools, houses of refuge, etc.; most of the inmates are entirely normal; it is abnormal surroundings, such as poverty or drunkenness at home, that brought them here, and not abnormal natures in the children themselves. But it may be added that if children remain long enough in such conditions they will be liable to develop whatever criminal tendencies are in them. It is generally admitted that about 10 per cent of inmates are incorrigible; that is, they are criminals by nature. As their incorrigibility is shown by repeated acts, it is not so difficult to select these cases. This is not saying that such and such a case can not be cured, but intelligent prison officials of long experience doubt the probability of reformation.

CRIME NOT A DISEASE.

This fact of incorrigibility may be a reason why crime has been considered a disease. Reports from the principal penitentiaries of this country, recently gathered by the Bureau of Education, show 82 per cent in good health, 11 per cent in fair health. If crime is a disease, it would seem that it has little to do with what is ordinarily designated under this term. Some have sought by the study of criminals' brains to show anatomical anomalies indicating disease; but there is little agreement in these investigations. But if there were agreement, it would only indicate probabilities, not certainties, for comparatively few brains of criminals have been studied. Even in the case of the insane it is not demonstrated that mental disease necessarily involves brain disease; yet most investigators believe that it does, and with good reason. But there have been cases of insanity in which cerebral anomalies have been sought for in vain. To say that the cause was functional and so did not leave any traces is a hypothesis, but not knowledge in the scientific sense. Now, in the case of the criminal, the too common statement that crime is disease, is speculation, not fact.

FREEDOM OF CRIMINALS' WILL.

A general sociological and ethical maxim is that the idea of wrong depends upon the moral, intellectual, and physical danger or injury which a thought, feeling, volition, or action brings to humanity.

This principle should be applied to degrees of exaggerated wrong or crime. But it may be asked if the degree of freedom or of personal guilt should not be the basis of punishment. The force of this objection is evident; the idea of freedom has been the basis of criminal law; it has also been sanctioned by the experience of the race; and although no claim is made of carrying it into practice without serious difficulties in the way of strict justice (difficulties inevitable to any system), yet it has been not only of invaluable service, but a necessity to humanity. This is not only true on criminal lines, but this idea has been the conscious basis of our highest moral ideals.

But at the same time the exaggeration of the idea of freedom has been one of the main causes of vengeance, which has left its traces in blood, fire, and martyrdom; and though at present vengeance seldom seeks such extreme forms, yet it is far from extinct. On moral and on biblical grounds, as far as man is concerned, vengeance can find little support. With few exceptions, a revengeful tone or manner toward a prisoner (the same is true outside of prison) always does harm, for it stirs up similar feelings in the prisoner, which are often the cause of his bad behavior and crime. Kindness, with firmness, is the desirable combination.

If we were obliged to withhold action in the case of any criminal for the reason that we did not know whether, or in what degree, he was innocent or guilty, from the standpoint of freedom of will, the community would be wholly unprotected. If a tiger were loose in the streets, the first question would not be whether he was guilty or not. We should imprison the criminal, first of all, because he is dangerous to the community.

THE STUDY OF CRIMINALS THEORETICAL.^a

At present our jurists study law books, not criminals, and yet nearly one-half the time of our courts is given to criminals. The individual study of the criminal and crime is a necessity, if we are to be protected from ex-convicts—the most costly and most injurious citizens we have.

A complete study of a criminal includes his history, genealogy, and all particulars concerning himself and his surroundings previous to and during his criminal act; also a study of him in the psychophysical sense—that is, experiments upon his mind and body with instruments of precision—measuring, for example, his thought-time, sense of sight, hearing, touch, taste, smell, pressure, heat, and cold; also an examination of his organs after death, especially of his brain. It is evident that no one person could make an adequate study of a criminal. The microscopical anatomy of the brain alone, with its physiology, is more than the life work of many men could accomplish. Criminology, therefore, depends for its advancement upon the results of numerous departments of investigation.

CRIMINOLOGY NOT YET A SCIENCE.

In a rigid sense criminology is no more a science than sociology. Like many other branches of study, they are called sciences by cour-

^a Ideas of Italian school of criminology will be found in Senate Document No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

tesy. But the empirical study of human beings, with whatever class it begins, is an important step toward a scientific sociology. Criminology is an initiatory step in the direct study of individuals themselves and their exact relations to their surroundings. The practical and scientific value of such study consists in showing more clearly what normal society is or ought to be, just as the study of insanity gives by contrast an insight into mental health.

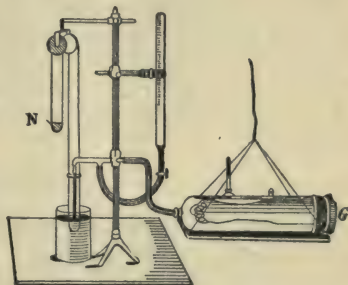
PHYSIOLOGY OF THE CRIMINAL'S BRAIN.

As already indicated, knowledge of the criminal's brain, as well as of the brain in general, is very inadequate, so that any definite conclusions are unwarranted. It may be said that the fact of a criminal having mental anomalies and at the same time cerebral or cranial ones, does not show that either one is the cause of the other, although it may justify a presumption that they are in some way related; for such conclusions are based upon the anatomy rather than the physiology of the brain; as to the latter little is known. It is easy to conceive that brain circulation, qualitative and quantitative, has as much to do in its effect on the mind as anatomical conditions. It is, however, reasonable to assume that in the last analysis every physiological irregularity is based upon an anatomical one; yet the reverse may be assumed also. The probability would seem to be that the physiological and anatomical mutually act and react, one upon the other; and to decide which is primary is wholly beyond our present knowledge.

THE PLETHYSMOGRAPH.

Measurements of sensibility by instruments of precision have not been carried very far. As an illustration of the probable importance of this method of study, we give a diagram of the plethysmograph of Mosso. The purpose of this instrument is to show the effect of the emotions upon the circulation of the arterial blood.

This instrument is one among others belonging to the Bureau of Education, constituting the nucleus of a physio-educational laboratory. It consists of a cylindrical vessel, G, suited for the limb (the arm); the opening through which the limb is introduced is closed with caoutchouc, and the vessel is filled with water. The arrangement is such that any increase or decrease in the volume of water in the vessel G causes the weight N to rise or fall. On this weight is attached a small bar which can be made to register its upward or downward movement on a revolving cylinder. As the arm enlarges from an increased supply of blood the curve registered on the cylinder is upward. Since the flow of venous blood is regarded as uniform in the passive limb, an increase of the volume of the arm shows a greater velocity in the flow of arterial blood in the limb. By having the criminal insert his arm into the cylinder, some of the effects of ideas on his emotional nature through the circulation of the blood will be registered, giving involuntary testimony as to his nervous and physical nature. Thus, in the case of one when the sentence of a judge was read, a decrease in flow



THE PLETHYSMOGRAPH.

of blood was observed by the lowering of the curve, but the sight of a cigar or a glass of wine raised the curve, which is equivalent to an increase in flow of arterial blood in the arm. In the case of a brutal murderer the flow was little affected by the sight of a pistol, whereas in normal man there is a decided effect. The value of such an instrument for investigations on normal people will also be evident when we consider that both mental depression and sleep may cause the curve to lower; during straining and coughing the curve rises, but falls in sighing.

Although little has been done with the plethysmograph as yet, it is easy to see the important bearing it may have on educational and psycho-physical questions. Thus a pupil with his arm in the vessel can be set to performing mathematical calculations or composing sentences, or varied ideas may be presented to his mind, and the effects of these mental states or studies on the circulatory system can be seen. As it is very probable that an increase of circulation in the arm, psychically caused, means a decrease of circulation in the brain, we are able to study directly the influence of different mental conditions on circulation in the brain.

MORAL OBTUSENESS.

The extreme moral insensibility of habitual criminals can not be better shown than by their words and acts, often naively expressed. A criminal whose brother was being executed stole a purse and watch and said: "What a misfortune my brother is not here to have his share." Some speak so coldly and unconcernedly of their crimes in court that they would be taken for witnesses rather than authors of their deeds. Pity for the suffering of others is very feeble. One reminds the priest (preaching to him repentance) of the wine he had promised him fifteen days previously; and when mounting the scaffold the last and only thing which he said was to ask his wife, who was his accomplice, to give him credit for 37 francs. Another, from the three executioners desired to choose his "professor." Another complained of the condition of the streets through which he was brought to the scaffold.

THE DECEITFULNESS OF CRIMINALS.

Perhaps the greatest power of deceit of which man is capable has been shown on the scaffold. There are too many people who believe that no one would tell a falsehood when facing death. The fact that many hold this idea encourages criminals to insist on their innocence to the very last. Especially is this true of the more intelligent criminals, for they see they have little to lose but some things to gain as far as their reputation is concerned; for if they do not confess, many perhaps may believe them to be innocent or even consider them martyrs. Then, too, they may deny their guilt for the sake of their family.

Criminals probably fear death more than other men, but their intense vanity helps them to conceal it, just as their lack of foresight and impetuosity makes them appear courageous. Not a few have been known to confess their faults to Him who grants divine pardon and then proclaim with a loud voice their innocence and die in contradiction with themselves.

PREVENTION OF CRIME.

When the cause of a particular crime is found, this indicates the most active cause, but not the only one. There may be specific remedies for specific cases, but they can only be determined by special study of the individuals. While some cases can not be reached, the great majority can be made susceptible to reformation, or at least improvement. Often the truest and best advice a physician can give to his patient is to keep up the general health, and nature will be his best servant in resisting all attacks of disease. The same principle applies in aiding one to overcome temptations to evil or crime. Such a remedy consists in moral and intellectual habits being implanted in children, which will give a constant resistance to all temptation, and be even an unconscious force when self-control is lost. Little can be expected from palliative remedies as long as this educational remedy is not thoroughly carried out.

CASE OF H.^a

As a study in education and criminology the following case of H. is of interest, for he is an educated man, as the world goes, a doctor of medicine, graduate of a university, and a man above the average criminal in culture, appearance, and general intellectuality. The importance of studying such a man is to note the gradual steps that led him to his fate, which he probably never intended. No man, as a rule, seeks to have his own life taken from him. He gradually gets accustomed to doing things, and forgets the feeling of the community. He then becomes careless and finally is caught. The intellectual education of a man at least fills his mind with subjects calculated to do him good. They do not tend to crime. But, of course, it is the moral side of education that has to do with the study of the criminal. It shows the importance of good habits, which the criminal seldom has. His life is irregular. He is a wanderer, from sociological necessity, and this wandering spirit leads to a feeling of irresponsibility. A man among strangers is liable to regard them as in a manner enemies.

As most criminals, like H., are seeking their own pleasure, if money leads to it, it is a question of degree how far they will go. If the question is asked whether the acts of any criminal, his life, or any special deed are due to himself or to his surroundings, we say that the surroundings caused the crime, and when they are due mostly to him we say he is a criminal by nature. Where a man is admittedly a criminal by nature, he is three-fourths like other men; and what is true in general of the physiology and psychology of criminals is almost as true of all men. So that when we are studying criminals we are really to a large extent studying human beings, only criminals are more convenient to study when they are in prison.

A common characteristic of the criminal is his vanity—the effect his crimes are liable to have on the community—and H. was not an exception to this rule. Some criminals when performing a bloody act get into a sort of spasm, and after they have killed their victim hack him to pieces, and then lay down through exhaustion and sleep right by the side of the body until they are rested.

Criminals are dangerous to the community, and should be shut up and not let out until there is reasonable certainty that they are no longer dangerous, just the same as we treat the insane. It is very difficult

^aFor a "pure murder" case, see Senate Document No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

to tell the degree of guilt of any man, simply because we do not know his hereditary tendencies nor the special conditions and surroundings under which he was at the time of committing his deeds, but it is conscience. That is, when he was wronged he felt it (many criminals are very sensitive on this point). But in wronging others he was willfully made obtuse by his overtacts. Criminals are frequently accused of things they don't do, which shows the great disadvantage of having a bad reputation, which most of them earn. He was a deceiver by nature; and this, coupled with his greed for money, gradually led him into serious acts. But how shall we account for this criminal? In one sense such a question involves the whole inquiry into the origin of evil itself. It will not do to say that he is a man born out of his time. It is not plausible in the case of a murderer by nature, for the taking of human life was very common in the early races of men. But H. was effeminate in nature, and when taking human life he used an effeminate method, poisoning. Throughout the history of crime this has been woman's method. We do not know enough about the origin of society to account for the beginning of deception. It is evident from the letters that his greed for money, with little or no aversion to deceive, and his poverty gradually led him on. Poverty is often an occasion but not a cause of a great deal of wrongdoing.

His strong impulse to deception and greed was the hereditary side of his character; the degree to which he developed them into criminality depended upon his environment.

The prisoner did not desire, and therefore the authorities did not permit, that an instrument be put upon him while on the scaffold and after he dropped for the purposes of measuring the effects of the emotions upon the movements of his chest while standing upon the scaffold and the reflex motions of asphyxia. These effects would be transferred to the muscles of the thorax by means of the kymographion; the chest movements after the fall of the drop, the rate of their temporary increase or decrease, and their periodicity could probably have been determined. It was not expected that from one single case any very important results could be obtained, but by observing the different effects of hanging when the neck breaks and when it does not, and also the effects in cases of electrocution, the comparative degree of pain and the length of duration of consciousness might be determined. This would aid in a scientific study of the physiology of death, of which very little is yet known. Physicians are allowed to study persons of the highest respectability both in private practice and in hospitals, and the knowledge thus gained has been utilized for the good of humanity. It is therefore difficult to see serious reasons why the greatest enemies of society should not be used for the benefit of society, provided, of course, no injury is done them.

In reply to the remark that it was temporarily assumed that he (H.) might be guilty of some of the crimes he was accused of, the prisoner made the following statements:

STUDY OF H. IN HIS CELL.

He said: "I did not deny my guilt for several reasons; people would not believe me even if I told the truth. My counsel will tell you the reasons. I am preparing my affairs with a view that I am to be executed. I prefer it to imprisonment for life. If I were not

executed the insurance companies would make an example of me. If I am accused of seventeen murders, and the three insisted upon are shown to be false, how can anyone believe me guilty of the others? I lived in Chicago ten years and had a good reputation."

When told that there was a moral certainty that he was guilty of one or two murders, and there were reasons to suspect that he had committed a number, he laughed. When told that the most intelligent and aristocratic criminals seldom confess on the scaffold, he said he did not desire to confess on account of his relatives.

H. said he was going to cut the interview short, remarking when I was preparing the kymographion that I would use all my half hour with this; that another man was coming to see him whom he desired to see more than me. After I had remained much longer than half an hour he said he guessed he would cut the other man short. He did not care himself, but the prison was granting him many privileges, and so he wanted to cut me short.

When in prison at St. Louis he said he saw a negro hung, while looking through his cell window, and that pieces of the rope were taken as mementoes and fastened on the watch chains of the bystanders. Then he asked if I could believe that after such a terrible experience he would go and do things that would bring him to the gallows. I answered that of about one hundred and fifty men guillotined in Paris all had witnessed a similar execution.

He said in his book he had admitted many crimes, but had never taken life; said "he drew the line at murder." (An innocent man would hardly use such an expression.)

When told that criminals feared death more than other people and preferred imprisonment for life, he said he must be an exception; he was almost tempted to make a false confession in order to hang.

When I inserted an instrument in his mouth to measure the height of his palate, he said, as if afraid, "Don't choke me."

He complained of being troubled with strabismus from childhood; said his mother was an epileptic; that he was not nervous, but at present felt a little nervous.

He had lived with a professor, who was his best friend, and who was at that time demonstrator of anatomy. He did not go to college, but graduated from the medical school. He added he was also a graduate in pharmacy. He would send all he had to say to his former professor (he did not do it), to whom I could write. He did not like to tell all on account of his domestic troubles, which had not been entered into. He admitted that he was married more than once.

RESULTS OF EXAMINATION BY KYMOGRAPHION.

This instrument is for the purpose of measuring the effects of mental and emotional states upon the movements of the chest. Actors locate the seat of the emotion they simulate in the chest. A silk band is drawn closely about the chest, a little air-tight cylinder with a delicate film over both ends, a hook being inserted in each film, was attached to the loops in the end of the silk band; from the air-tight cylinder a couple of yards of slender rubber tubing with the other end inserted in a tambour. The tube went into another air-tight space, the bottom and sides of which were wood and the top a delicate film. On this film

rested a delicate hinge, to which was fastened a fine bamboo splinter, which rose and fell with every breath. When this was placed against the cylinder of the kymographion, lines were scratched on the surface of the smoked paper, which indicated the motion of the little bamboo point. With every inhalation the bamboo splinter was raised and with every expiration it descended, making a wave-like curve on the paper.

It will be noticed that all the mental and emotional states lessened the breathing, since the waves in all the lines are smaller than those in the regular breathing (line 1). In the few experiments made this



THE KYMOGRAPHION RECORD.

REGULAR BREATHING.



READING PHILOSOPHY.



MULTIPLY 489 TIMES 7.



READING PHILOSOPHY ALOUD.



The kymographion records the movements of the chest, as affected by mental and emotional states. The higher the waves in the lines the more the subject breathes.

is what generally occurs: Reading of philosophy (line 2), multiplication (line 3), affected the prisoner's breathing most. This is what generally happens, with the exception of the feeling of hatred, which is in most people a wavy line, but in the prisoner it is his most intense line; that is to say, it absorbs his attention most. Concentration of attention seemed to be much easier for him in hating than in the other emotions. As an example of the effects of emotion on H. by another method, the following will illustrate: He was accused by a prominent lawyer of having killed the P. children. They were in a room together. His eyes bulged out; he turned red, and could say nothing.

PHYSICAL MEASUREMENTS.

JANUARY, 4, 1896.

Height, 72 centimeters; sitting height, 33 centimeters; strength of right-hand grasp, 34 kilograms; of left-hand grasp, 32 kilograms; maximum length of head, 191 millimeters; maximum width of head, 149 millimeters; cephalic index, 78; distance between external edges of orbits, 110 millimeters; length of nose, 55 millimeters; width of nose, 35 millimeters; nasal index, 63; length of ears, right, 60 millimeters; left, 62 millimeters (he remarked that he had injured his ear); width of mouth, 55 millimeters; thickness of lips, 10 millimeters; height of palate, 20 millimeters.

MEASUREMENTS OF NERVOUS SYSTEM.

Least sensibility to locality: Right wrist, 17 millimeters; left wrist, 17 millimeters. Least sensibility to heart: Right wrist, 4 degrees; left wrist, 5 degrees. Least sensibility to pain by pressure: Right temporal muscle, 700 grams; left temporal muscle, 600 grams; with hand algometer (Catell's), right hand, 5,750 grams, and left hand, 4,750 grams.

H. said he was ambidextrous (common among criminals). He said the example of a friend taught him to be this. Another peculiarity is the fact of one ear being longer than the other. His palate is higher than the normal, which is about 14 millimeters. His sense of locality is more obtuse than the average, which is 15 millimeters. Another peculiarity is the fact that his left hand is less sensitive to heat than his right hand. This seldom is the case with normal people. His sensibility to pain is more acute than the average; that is, on the temporal muscle.

EXAMINATION BY DR. TALBOT.

Nativity, American; age, 35; weight, 150 pounds; occiput, full, right lower than left; bregma, sunken; forehead, left side more full than right, sloping; hair, brown; face, excessive; body, excessive; face, arrested; zygomæ, arrested, hollowed on right side; ears, right lower than left; nose, long, very thin; stenosis of nasal bone; septum deflected to left; nose turned to right; thyroid gland, arrested; eyes, strabismus in left, inherited; left higher than right; jaws, slightly protruding upper, arrest of lower; alveolar process normal; left side of mouth drops lower than the right; third molars not developed; remaining teeth regular; chin turned to right; breast, marked pigeon breast, left side more than right; chest contracted, tendency to tuberculosis; arms, right normal, left $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches short; legs long and thin; feet medium in size, but markedly deformed; depression on left side of skull at bregma, due to fall of brick at the age of 31; sexual organs unusually small.

There are a number of abnormalities noted in Dr. Talbot's examination, but they do not seem to me sufficient in number and degree to class the prisoner as physically abnormal. His height of palate, in my own examination, and his general demeanor would class him among neurotics.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

Antecedents and childhood: One who knew his family well says in a letter: "I was born in P., N. H., in an adjoining town to the birth-place of H., which was G., B. Co., N. H., and inasmuch as H. and his

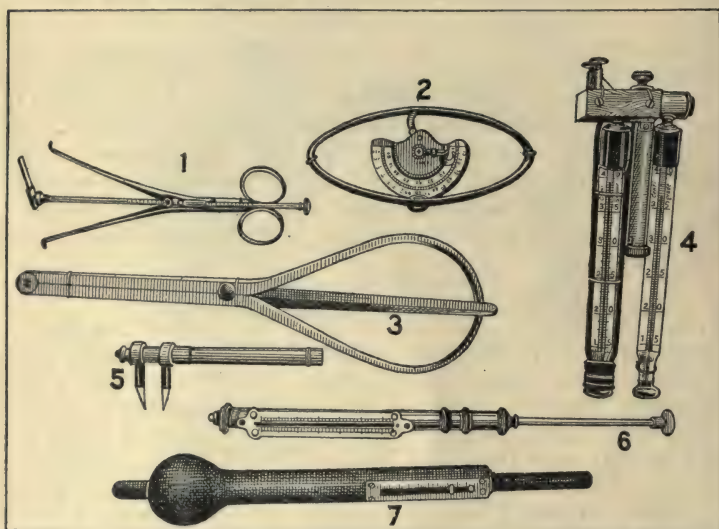
parents were frequently attendants upon my father's preaching, and as he attended the district school taught by my wife's sister, and as his wife, and part of the time himself, were in the employ of an uncle of mine, I have a definite knowledge of his youth.

"His people were very upright, God-fearing citizens, living in a quiet, secluded section of the country. There is no trace or taint of open immorality or vice in the family history for at least three generations of which I have any knowledge. I am intimately acquainted with several of his cousins, and they are all upright men.

"As a boy, H. was a quiet, studious, faithful lad, with refined tastes, not caring to join to any extent in the rude and rough games of his companions at school, and easily standing as the first scholar in his class. He was a general favorite with the mothers in that community.

INSTRUMENTS APPLIED TO H.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Palatometer. | 5. Aesthesiometer. |
| 2. Hand-grasp measure. | 6. Temple algometer. |
| 3. Cranlometer. | 7. Palm algometer. |
| 4. Thermaesthesiometer. | |



because he was such a well-behaved lad. In his youth he was predisposed to a religious life; was a faithful, painstaking student of the Scriptures, and rather excelled in his Sunday-school class, and later in his Bible class, and my recollection is that he took an active part in the weekly prayer meetings, and was known as a religious youth."

Letter from his first wife.—In regard to his childhood days I can not say much, as I did not know much of him until he was 17 years old. I always felt that he was pleasant in disposition, tender-hearted, much more so than people in general. He was of a very determined mind, at the same time quite considerate of others' comfort and welfare. In 1881 he was at B., Vt., for the year, and in the spring of 1882 he started for the university, and, as far as I knew, was doing very well. I returned to N. H. the spring before he was to graduate, and have known very little of him since, but he has always been called very smart, well educated, and a man of refined ways. Before attend-

ing the medical school he taught school several terms and was very successful—as much so as teachers in general—and when the story came out people who had always known him said: “We can not believe this. H. would not have the heart or courage to do anything so terrible.” But of course he has worked himself up to it little by little, and I think, having done some little wrong, he had been driven to a greater one for a cover, and each one growing worse, of course it is easy or more easy to go in the wrong after the first few steps.

UNIVERSITY LIFE.

Letters of inquiry were sent to his teachers and classmates, many of whom are now prominent physicians.

One of the professors in the university says: “It is true that while a student here he was for a year or two under my roof, but not in any such intimate relations with me as to justify him as looking upon me as his best friend; if so, his friends must be few. However, I am very sorry for him, even although he himself may be the direct cause of his present miseries and threatening punishments. He told me a few months ago, when I visited him in prison, that he and another classmate had worked up a scheme to defraud an insurance company a few months after they graduated in 1884 from the medical department here, but that the scheme fell through because of his friend’s death, which occurred within a year after he graduated. I do not know whether he graduated in pharmacy or not. He certainly did not take that course here, as I find he was never entered as a pharmacy student. He may have taken the degree elsewhere, but if he did it was after he graduated in medicine, as he made no claim to having had a pharmacy course when he was here.

“There were several things that occurred while he was here as a student that in the light of subsequent events show him to have been even at that time well practiced in criminal habits. Although he was married and had his wife here for a time doing work as a dressmaker and assisting in supporting himself and her, yet he got into trouble by showing some attention to a grass widow, who was engaged in the business of hair dressing. This woman made some complaints to the faculty during the latter part of his senior year, and the stories that she told, had they been confirmed, would have prevented him from graduating. But I had no reason to doubt his word at that time, and his friends lied for him so vigorously that I was wholly deceived and defended him before the faculty, and he was permitted to graduate. On the afternoon of commencement day he came to me of his own accord, with his diploma in his hand, and said: ‘Doctor, those things are true that that woman said about me.’ This was the first positive evidence that I had received up until that time that the fellow was a scoundrel, and I took occasion to tell him so at that time. I subsequently learned, however, that he had made two attempts to enter my house in the character of a burglar, and also that he had, while occupying a room in a portion of my house, attempted to force a drawer in my library in which I had been in the habit of keeping some valuables. Three months after he had graduated in medicine, and knowing full well what opinion I entertained of him, he wrote me asking for a recommendation to assist him in getting an appointment as a missionary to Africa. This, I am satisfied, he did simply from the spirit of devilishness, and not that he had any serious intention of carrying out

such a purpose. These, and many little incidents that I might relate to you, some of them personal experiences of my own with him, and others that have been told me by members of my family, serve to further illustrate these traits in his character, but they are all of the same nature as those that I have mentioned."

Another professor says: "Personally, I can not recall H.'s features. I only remember that he failed to pass in my work and that I voted against his graduation."

TESTIMONY OF HIS CLASSMATES.

1. "Myself and family lived in the house with H. and his family almost one school year. His family consisted of a wife and one child (a boy about 4 years old). His wife was a very pleasant woman and willing to make any sacrifice that she might help him along in his course. She finally went out to work and gave him her earnings. She was subject to convulsions of some kind, and while at work he gave her such quantities of bromide that her face broke out very badly. Every one thought it too bad for her. He must have been in very straitened circumstances, for he managed different ways of getting along. I remember he built a barn for a widow woman who was studying medicine in the homeopathy department at that time. She told me how H. beat her on the barn. He was very dishonest and tricky any place you found him. He would borrow everything of the students that he could to save himself buying. I have no picture of H. Would never have recognized him by his picture in the papers. At that time he had a rather slender face, wore chin whiskers, not considered good-looking; but I remember he had treacherous-looking eyes. Another piece of his wife's economy was to borrow our sewing machine and completely turn a coat for him. He was not a graduate in pharmacy to my knowledge."

2. "It happened that H. acted as steward of a boarding house (only table boarding). It was his duty to keep the places at table filled with students and collect the money weekly. My recollection of him is quite distinct. None of the boys ever knew much of him (further than that he admitted himself to be married), or had much to do with him. His associations with his fellow-students amounted to but little, because of his way of living. He had no money, at least that is what he always said. For his meals he conducted the club, while he slept at Dr. H.'s house. (Dr. H. was then demonstrator of anatomy in the university.) This brought him to the boarding house only at meal-time. The money was collected by H. regularly every Saturday evening. He was, as I remember, always punctual in performing his duties, and also regular at his meals. Even now I can see him sitting at the lower, dark end of the long table, saying but little and laughing seldom. He was of a remarkably taciturn disposition, apparently very indifferent to his surroundings, coldly methodical, unresponsive to humor, and very brief in his statements. His topics of conversation were mainly concerning Dr. H.'s operations upon his private patients. H., as I have said, slept at Dr. H.'s house. He always accompanied Dr. H. upon his night trips. We students, remarking the thing, always thought that H.'s quietness was due to his rest being broken and irregular, having always to hitch up the horse for the Dr.'s use, perhaps accompany him, and then stable the horse upon the Dr.'s

return. I remember once of asking a medical student how H. answered up in his 'quiz.' The answer I got was that he was not very reliable or exact in his knowledge."

3. Health officer in a well-known city says: "From October, 1883, until June, 1884, I boarded at a boarding club. This club was run by H., who was at that time a member of the senior medical class. He collected the board money and drummed up boarders among the students, receiving his own board free for the services rendered. I sat at the same table with him during most of the year. He assisted Dr. H. in his private dissecting room and in the injection of bodies received for dissection. He kept the cloakroom, receiving small fees from students engaged in dissection for looking after their clothing, renting them drawers for their dissecting instruments, etc., and in many other ways contrived to earn small sums of money. He was at all times, while I knew him, miserably, poor and a subject for pity. As a student he was distinctly what might be termed 'dumb.' He was slow to grasp ideas and not at all ready in reasoning. I distinctly remember that we expected him to fail to graduate and that there was a general impression that his ultimate graduation was due to the pity of the professors overcoming their sense of propriety. Personally, he was not a man to attract friendship, although he was never offensive or repellant. He was rather quiet in manner, very slouchy in gait, and usually held his head low. I think (but am not positive) that he had a slight droop of one eyelid. I heard during the year succeeding H.'s graduation that he had gone to Cape Colony, South Africa, and was much surprised to note the first publication of his name in connection with the murders."

4. A woman medical student says: "I was in the same section for recitation with H. First note, a marked, almost rapt attention to detail in class work, both theoretical and practical; 2d note, very intelligent recitations; 3d note, in spite of the rather attractive physiognomy a personal feeling of repugnance, which I did not understand until his beard was shaved at one time. As I always judge a man by his mouth (as a correcting characteristic feature), I no longer wondered at the instinctive distrust."

5. A classmate who is an alienist, says: "My recollection of him is that he was a quiet, unpretentious individual, not a brilliant student by any means, but rather plodding and perhaps below mediocre, but attentive to lectures and operations. My connection with this institution has been continuous since the day of my graduation, and in the light of the experience I have had in seeing a large number of insane and defective people, I can not now recall anything about H. that would warrant me in saying that he was peculiar, degenerate, defective, or insane, or that he lacked the average mental or moral qualities."

6. "I was quite well acquainted with him. He always stated to me that he was born in England. He seemed always of a sullen disposition, not caring to talk much, a fair student, although not bright, and still he might be stated to be of average intelligence. We attended many lectures together, and occupied seats close to each other. He was not at all popular and seemingly had very few intimate friends, and the talk was that he would not be able to pass his final examinations, as, if I mistake not, he entered on advanced standing. If I mistake not he stated that he was a married man, and complained frequently

of lack of funds to complete his studies. He was often the center of comment on account of his quiet, rather sullen disposition, although he was quite talkative to those with whom he took a fancy. I do not presume that he took any particular fancy to the writer, but he frequently asked me for assistance or passed remarks about our work, and acted as if he had either some great trouble or was of a very retiring disposition."

7. "I was well acquainted with him. He and I dissected together on the same cadaver. In college life he seemed rather a recluse, seldom taking any part in the mirth or amusements of the class, and yet it was not because he was overstudious, for he was but mediocre in attainments. He wore his hair cut square across behind, which gave the appearance of a bulging cerebellum. He did not appear defiant. I do not know that he had a single confidante among his classmates. As I recall him now, he gave no promise of being an adept at good works or crime. Once in the dissecting room I remember that he appropriated the foot of a child cadaver, taking it away for his own use. He did not seem in good health at any time. His eyes were sunken, complexion pasty, and figure lean."

CONDUCT IN DISSECTING ROOM.

8. "I know of nothing in his character during my acquaintance with him which would mark him as exceptional in any way. I remember he was identified with the Young Men's Christian Association of the university, and took sides with that society in a dispute between the society and one of the professors, and he told me at one time that after graduation he intended to go to New Zealand as a medical missionary. On the whole, his conduct was such as to breed a sensation of dislike for him among his fellows. He appeared to be a good deal of a sneak, and I know as a matter of fact that he was a liar. He seemed to be fond of the uncanny things of the dissecting room, and told me at the beginning of one spring vacation that he intended to take home the body of an infant for dissection; that Dr. H. had given him one for that purpose. He seemed to derive a good deal of pleasure from the fact. Nevertheless, he was not an industrious worker in the dissecting room."

9. Classmate, president of a State medical society, says: "I saw him daily. His appearance was very ordinary. He was of a meditative, unassuming disposition, willing to talk if approached, but his manner was retiring. He was apparently most inoffensive; we then thought him stupid. In his difficulty with the dressmaker we, boylike, believed poor H. was being sinned against, and selected a law student, now a member of Congress for Idaho, to intercede for him, with the result that the faculty was lenient and H. was 'vindicated.' His bearing so little resembled that of one who sought the company of women that we regarded the incident as a great joke. Even at that time he was given to devising schemes for money-making; speculating on projects that might be taken up after graduation. We did not regard them as of doubtful integrity, yet none of them were in line with the profession he was about to be graduated into. We looked upon them as visionary. He had no chums or associates, so far as I knew; always alone, of modest demeanor, and never aggressive. It was a serious struggle with him then for bare existence, and we pitied him without thought of his merit, for he was, as we saw him, a negative character."

10. "He was a fellow to slide along without attracting any attention, and would be soon forgotten. There was an episode in which he acquired some notoriety, and if guilty showed much foresight and caution on his part. The facts are as follows: A young widow was running a boarding house, he being one of the boarders. She obtained a letter to him from his wife; she brought her case before the faculty, claiming that he had promised to marry her, and in evidence produced some letters signed in his name. He denied the charge and produced specimens of his handwriting, including notebooks, etc., which were not in the same hand as the letters produced by her. The evidence was not such that the faculty could convict on, so they let him off. The opinion among the students was that he was the one who wrote the letters."

11. "His life was somewhat in the background. He said in conversing with me that he had been in the life insurance business in New York, New Hampshire, and Chicago. He said he had traveled a great amount. He and his wife did not get along very well. Have seen her with blackened eyes as a result of their quarrels. They roomed only a few doors from where I roomed. His life was somewhat suspicious, and he was supposed to be getting bodies for the anatomical rooms in some mysterious way. He gave me a hint of this in a conversation I had with him. He told me he did not intend to practice medicine, but wanted a medical education to help him in his business. He was only a fair student; was absent from his work often, and many of us thought he would not be able to get through. He paid more attention to anatomy, surgery, and materia medica. To me he was a suspicious person, and I so treated him while we were associated together. I would often question him along the lines of business he had been engaged in and he would invariably turn the conversation into other channels. He told me how he evaded paying the extra fees nonresidents of Michigan had to pay. I was not surprised when I saw in one of the papers a short sketch of his past life which tallied with some of the things he told me."

12. "He passed by the nickname of 'Smegma' among the 'boys' of our class, due doubtless to a peculiar odor. As I remember him he appeared as a simple, harmless individual, and it has been a source of astonishment to me in noting his remarkable career of crime. He was in some 'shady' transactions while at the university. As I now look back at the picture he left on memory's wall, he was an uncouth rustic, simple in speech, rude in manner, with not one prodromic symptom that would enable one to even dream that he would one day stand as a monster of crime."

13. "He had a noticeable aversion to familiarity. During the time spent with Dr. H. he took active interest in Sunday-school work of the Presbyterian church, of which Dr. H. was a prominent and active member. I remember him as an odd character in the class on account of his seemingly friendless fate and the manner in which he worked himself into the good graces of Dr. H. About the last thing he told me was he had decided to go as a medical missionary to some foreign country after graduating, and that Dr. H. had acted in his behalf to secure for him all the necessary credentials for the undertaking."

14. "To me he was especially noticeable for his rather delicate and fair facial complexion and rather blue and open eyes. He had a thin

mustache curled up at the ends. His habits were decidedly of a secretive nature, and consequently he was never much discussed."

15. "I was quite intimately acquainted with him and can honestly say that he was the last man that I would suspect of doing the deeds of which he was convicted."

16. "He was sickly looking and troubled quite a little with boils. He was peculiar in that he did not seem to care for anyone but himself and paid but little attention to anyone. I thought he was rather repulsive in looks, but never thought him a criminal."

17. "He was a quiet, hard-working student, although in some respects a little peculiar. He was quite often found occupying older students' seats down nearer the lecturer, and in consequence was sometimes 'passed up,' as the boys used to say. He was of quite a religious turn of mind and was quite a worker in the Presbyterian Sunday school."

18. "He never made very many friends; never was hail-fellow with anybody. Was always influenced by circumstances, and when once decided upon a point would never yield or acknowledge himself mistaken. During 1884 he wore a mustache, dressed plainly, almost shabbily, and was very little with his class outside of absolute necessity."

19. "I boarded in the same club with him, and though sitting next to him at the table made very little progress toward an acquaintance; his disposition was such—sullen, I should call it—that one would be repelled rather than attracted."

20. "He was a man who tried hard to keep his identity to himself. He registered from the State of Michigan, when in private conversation he unthoughtfully admitted that he had never been in the State until he entered the university. His college career was not a bright one, as on many occasions he would try to use secret helps during his examinations. He never could carry on a conversation and at the same time look you in the face. When on the street he usually walked with his eyes on the ground."

21. "I remember having heard him referred to on one or two occasions as a 'smart Alec.' It was not generally, if at all, believed by the students at Ann Arbor that he had the necessary nerve to commit murder. As I remember, he was looked upon as a bigot and a fellow of so little consequence that it was not worth one's while to pay any attention to him so long as he kept to himself."

22. "I considered him a quiet, bright, unsophisticated sort of a young man. I saw nothing abnormal or anything to especially attract attention. He seemed rather gloomy at times and not inclined to be intimate with anyone."

23. "He was easily disconcerted on being questioned and never ranked very high in his class, but this might have been caused by him entering upon advanced standing and not taking the first year in the university."

24. "I boarded at the same boarding house as he. After a few months the landlady found that he was cheating her by various methods; each boarder that left, he would report to the landlady that the boarder had not paid him for his board for several weeks, and pocket that amount of money. Also in ordering groceries he would 'beat' the lady. The other students thereby found out that he was dishonest. He appeared to be a sneaking, quiet, unpopular man, other students not associating with him to any extent. I never knew of him drinking. He did not seem to be a 'fast' boy, but a mean fellow. As

to his scholarship I remember only that Professor V. did not pass him on some branch and H. was very spiteful against Professor V.—wrote him letters calling him vile names and spoke bitterly against him.”

25. “He never entered into sports of any kind, seldom laughed, sometimes smiled in a dry, half-hearted way—he seemed secretive and afraid of suspicion.”

26. “He was looked upon as one who would attempt to attain favor with the faculty by spying among the students.”

27. “I was well acquainted with him. I have read everything about him since he was arrested and I know he tells the truth in some of his confessions.”

Letter from one who lived in the “Castle:” “February 2, 1889, I moved into a room in the ‘Castle’ and remained there till December 3, 1889. He was always quick and active. If you had seen him in drug store in Englewood you would have thought him the busiest man you ever saw. Was considered the best druggist and chemist that ever came here, and his store was always filled with customers. Nearly everyone who knew him here does not believe he killed anyone; think him too big a coward. He was one of the biggest swindlers they ever knew, but when he hired a man to do any work he always paid him what he asked without a word, but if he made a bargain with anyone that could afford to lose without breaking him up he would beat him almost every time. The iron columns in front of his building are an example. He never paid a cent for them and beat them in three courts. His gas business and using the city water for two years and making them believe it was artesian water were other instances. Bringing the city gas through a tank of water, he put stuff in the water to color the flame until the gas inspectors declared that it was not theirs.”

Letter from a prison chum: “It is very little information that I can give you regarding H. I met him for the first time in the jail, and was only with him for some three or four weeks while he remained in jail in St. Louis. I suppose that it was owing to the reputation that had been forced upon me that caused him to approach me and seek my acquaintance. I was then expecting to soon recover my liberty, and he stated that he intended soon to make a trip to Germany and wanted me to accompany him. I am now convinced that he would sooner or later have murdered me had I been able to have accompanied him on his intended trip abroad. I know nothing about him but what he told me of some of his former exploits before I met him. Of course you know that he told me all about the scheme to rob the insurance company, and that it was for introducing him to a lawyer who could be trusted to be allowed to know that the scheme to rob the insurance company was a fraud, etc., that I was to have \$500 to enable me to fight my case or secure my liberty.”

Letter from Mrs. P.’s father: “I beg to be allowed to reply that Mrs. P. is not at all in a condition to give such information even if she had it to give. It would be cruel to ask it of her. She is badly used up by the fearful ordeal she has gone through. The treatment received at the hands of officers and officials under the mistaken idea that she was a bad woman and desperate criminal, added to the horrid work of H. with herself and family, is surely enough to drive almost any woman to death or distraction. Her personal acquaintance with H. was not sufficient to give her a very concise opinion of his peculiar traits or points of character. She saw him but a few times before he

murdered her husband, and only a few times after, while at St. Louis, during the time he and his associates were robbing her of the insurance money. During the time she was being dragged about the country under the promise and delusion that she would see her husband and children, she only saw the wretch occasionally, and only for a short time. He never, to her knowledge, rode on the same train or put up at the same house or hotel where she was stopping. During this time Mrs. P. was under great mental strain. The children were confiding in him because P. had made them to understand and believe that he (H.) would be good to them. He allured P. to his death, and at the same time made him betray his family into his bloody hands. P. loved his family and would have fought for them had he thought anyone was going to impose upon or injure them. H. could show much kindness and be very sympathetic, but always, as it would seem, for the purpose of helping to carry out his murderous schemes. If his instructions to his victims in any matter were not carried out, he was quick to resent it and free to reprimand. He was 'boss' as well as executor."

CONDUCT BEFORE EXECUTION.

H. made a long confession of many brutal murders, which he subsequently admitted to be false. The purpose of this was said to be to pay his debts.

Just before his execution H. desired his counsel to walk to the gallows and remain there with him. No one desired it, but it was done because he threatened to make a scene. His statement upon the scaffold was as follows:

"Gentlemen, I have very few words to say; in fact, I would make no statement at this time except that by not speaking I would appear to acquiesce in my execution. I only want to say that the extent of my wrongdoing in taking human life consisted in the death of two women, they having died at my hand as the result of criminal operations. I wish to also state, however, so that there will be no misunderstanding hereafter, I am not guilty of taking the lives of any of the P. family, the three children or father, B. F. P., of whose death I am now convicted, and for which I am to-day to be hanged. That is all."

H. was self-possessed to the last, even suggesting to the superintendent not to hurry or to make any mistake.

PURPOSE OF CRIMINOLOGICAL STUDY.

The purpose of such study is to seek out the causes and conditions that lead to crime, on the general principle that the amelioration or prevention of evil doings can not be accomplished by rational methods until we know more definitely the causes, whether they lie more in the individual or more in the surroundings. As far as investigation of criminals has gone, the indications are that the cause of most crime lies in the surroundings rather than in the criminal, and this is a most hopeful result of such study, because it is possible to change the surroundings, but very difficult to change the nature of an individual. The study of a single criminal in the most thorough manner possible is important from the fact that he represents generally a large number in his type, and in this way a clear insight is gained into the definite nature of those characteristics and special surroundings which lead through their combination into evil doing.

The thorough study of a criminal illustrates the method by which every human being should be studied. There can be no scientific sociology in the rigid sense of that term until a thorough study is made of individuals in society.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

It is an undisputed fact that the moral side of education is as difficult as it is important. This becomes most apparent in the education of the dependent, weak, and criminal classes. Any educational system that can succeed here can with slight modification succeed in the community at large, for all men have tendencies, however slight, toward these defects; but, by force of character or surroundings, the great majority have been able to resist to such a degree as not to fall.

But it may be asked to what extent methods of education for normal individuals may be adapted to those who are abnormal. An individual may be said to be abnormal when his mental or emotional characteristics are so divergent from those of the ordinary person as to produce a pronounced moral or intellectual deviation or defect. To distinguish such abnormality from disease is difficult, if not impossible; but in general an abnormality is called disease as soon as it reaches a certain degree; but it may also be an excessive degree of the normal, just as in the physical man in a single diseased cell the normal or physiological processes are not changed in kind, but only in degree, or simply act at an inappropriate time. In general it may be said that, while all diseases are abnormal, not all abnormalities are diseases. The fact that the same functions are involved in both normal and abnormal processes (psychical and physical) is one explanation why the same methods of education are found applicable to both.

CLASSES OF SOCIETY.

If, then, the average man in the community is taken as a normal type and individuals are classified according to their degree of likeness or unlikeness to him, there will result in general the following divisions:

(1) The normal class of individuals, who greatly exceed all other classes in number; these in every community constitute the conservative and trustworthy element and may be said to be the backbone of the race.

(2) The dependent class, as represented in almshouses, hospitals, asylums for orphans and the homeless, and similar charitable institutions. According to the census of 1880 in the United States the whole number of such individuals, for example, amounted to 123,626.

(3) The delinquent class, as found in all penal and reformatory institutions, which, according to the same census, amounted to 70,077.

(4) The defective class. Here belong the insane, feeble-minded, idiotic, and imbecile, amounting in all to 168,854; and also the deaf, dumb, and blind, numbering 82,806 in all.

(5) Men of genius or great talent.

The total number of these first four classes in the United States for 1880 was 445,363. This, of course, is far below the reality, since many are not sent to the institutions from which the census is taken. It will,

however, give an idea of the comparatively small number of distinctively abnormal individuals—that is, less than half a million out of 50,000,000 inhabitants. It is surprising that so small a part of the community can cause so much trouble, danger, and expense. But it is in a social mechanism as in a mechanical, where one little part may throw the whole into disorder. Yet the importance of this part does not lie in itself, but in its relations to the others. Thus one crank or one criminal can throw the whole community into excitement, often causing great injury.

The delinquent classes approximate nearest to the normal type, for the majority deviate principally in one respect—that is, in a weakness of moral sense which gives away to temptation; this is the most harmful deviation, both for the individual and society, and the community justly regard these classes as their greatest enemy.

While the dependent classes owe their condition directly or indirectly to either alcoholism or improvidence or general mental or physical incapacity, their abnormality may be regarded as more distinctly social than in the case of the other classes.

The insane and feeble-minded are the largest in number and vary the most from the normal type. The one is an exaggeration of mental faculties due to cerebral irritation; the other is a diminution of mental powers; or both exaggeration and defect may coexist. Feeble-mindedness, idiocy, and imbecility may be due to an immature or arrested development.

There is a natural objection to calling the deaf and dumb and blind “defectives,” since the public are liable to suppose that this term applies to the mental capacity, which in many cases is not true. Yet the popular prejudice is not wholly unfounded, for anyone deprived of such important senses is so far hindered in opportunities for knowledge. It must be borne in mind also that a considerable number of the feeble-minded are deaf and dumb or partially so.

The division of the abnormal classes into dependent, delinquent, and defective, while by no means exact, is as convenient as any perhaps. Any exact division is manifestly impossible for the defective and delinquent are generally dependent and the delinquent are often defective, and vice versa.

The difficulty of obtaining the number of all those who belong to the special classes is unavoidable. Thus the delinquent class are the most desirous to conceal themselves. As to the insane, there are many such in the community who are not referred to as such because they are harmless. Many families seek to conceal insanity and idiocy. On the other hand, there may be exaggeration in the number of the poor, for some claim to be in poverty in order to receive help. There is also a tendency to exaggerate evil or misfortune in order to bring out a more liberal sympathy or there is, unfortunately, a morbid desire to picture the world in its darkest colors.

TEACHING OF PRACTICAL MORALITY.

From the point of view of society, the importance of these classes is not according to their number, for the delinquent are the most injurious and costly. This is evident when one considers the time they require from the police, detectives, and courts. There is much to indicate that the sociological problem involved in the delinquent and dependent classes is at its foundation an educational one. Teaching of practical

morality in such a way as to form good habits in the young is doubtless the surest preventive from a criminal career. A general criticism of educational systems is that they are little developed on their moral side as compared with the intellectual. Perez says that the business of education should be much more concerned with the habits that children acquire, and with their wills, rather than with the moral conscience. The latter is the blossom that will be followed by fruit, but the former are the roots and branches. While the moral and intellectual sides of education necessarily exist together, yet society is most solicitous about the former, for an individual may be a good citizen with little instruction if he has sound morality; but the reverse is not true.

There is a special difficulty in teaching even a minimum system of morality, for the desideratum consists not only in inculcating general principles, but by indicating courses of conduct in detail. Generalities elevate the moral tone, but details incarnate the principles. A definite course of conduct is needed, yet broad enough to apply to the average individual. In the province of personal hygiene there is much to be done, but nothing should be taught unless sanctioned by the most competent medical authorities. One cleanly habit established suggests others; a beginning, with a few details, is much more impressive than generalities.

Society teaches many of these things by occasion, when the poor are brought into hospitals and made conscious of what cleanliness signifies, or when the board of health forces this idea upon the community. Many children are taught, for the first time, lessons of cleanliness upon entering institutions for the weakling classes, where the good effects are seen; so that it is as true as it is paradoxical that some of the enemies of the State are receiving a most practical education from the State. This, however, has its justification, since the weak need more aid than the stronger, but this weakness may have been due to the neglect of such education at the outset.

The inmates of institutions for the delinquent and dependent differ little or none at all from individuals outside. The excellences and defects of an educational system can be carefully studied in these institutions, for all are under the same conditions and can be controlled in all details of their life. In addition to the practical value of the experience of these institutions there is a deeper one. One of the main objects of education is to eradicate or modify undesirable tendencies and to develop the favorable ones. Here is an opportunity for the rational method of treatment, which is, first, to study the unfavorable characteristics, and, second, to investigate their causes as far as possible. Knowledge thus gained will be the most reliable in correcting evil tendencies or preventing their development. By such a method no sudden results should be expected; gradual progress is all that can be hoped for. A thorough study of this nature in penal and reformatory institutions is possible; the effects of the method of education can be closely observed physically, intellectually, and morally. Thus when, for instance, an inmate ceases to reverse his drinking cup after using it, which is required for purposes of cleanliness and order, this though a very slight thing in itself, indicates that he is becoming careless and losing his will power to reform. By a sort of radiation other negligences are liable to follow, confirming the direction in which he is tending. A good report from his keeper, on the other hand, can signify a new resolution of the will. Thus a series of records indicate,

so to speak, the moral and intellectual pulse of the inmate. What might seem a very slight offense outside of a reformatory institution is not so within, where there is a minimum of temptation to do wrong and a maximum of continuous restraint to do right, so that there may be a gradual education in the formation of good habits, which are the surest safeguard to the inmate after his release.

It is important that institutions for the criminal and weakling classes strive to gain as much knowledge as possible of the life of the inmate previous to entering the institution, to keep a minute record of his conduct while under their care, and especially to follow his career afterwards, thus imparting useful knowledge to society at large, for if there is to be any advancement in the treatment of the weakling classes by educational methods, it will lie in the direction of the study of the inmates themselves. The institutions should afford facilities for such study, the very object of which is to furnish a trustworthy foundation for the prevention and repression of delinquency and dependency. If the cure is possible only to a certain degree, the approximate determination of this degree would be of great practical importance.

But if it be objected that, after all, much that is definite and trustworthy may not be gained, the cause will be due mainly to the need of more exact methods of investigation. By keeping an exact record of conduct in school, workshop, military service, and cell in connection with intellectual standing, and giving special attention to those individuals whose hereditary tendencies and early surroundings are best known, a thorough investigation of physical, mental, moral, and industrial education can be made. A minute study of one single individual in the social organism, be he delinquent, dependent, or not, may suggest a method for the beginning, at least, of a scientific sociological education. Such experience might be especially helpful in pointing out the best methods for the education of the young. In general, the main object of education is to train the young to become intelligent, moral, and self-supporting citizens. A system of education that can accomplish this is a practical need in society as a whole.

But education in the sense of the intellectual only is not sufficient; for, though the children of the weakling classes remain six hours in school, the rest of their time is spent in abodes of crime, squalid homes, or vicious idleness. While the reform schools are doing much, they do not reach, however, the very young at a time when influences for evil can leave indelible impressions. If these unfortunate children are to be educated morally and intellectually, it is evident that this can not be done unless they are removed from their pernicious surroundings.

Early prevention is the most effective of all reforms. Philanthropic efforts are being directed to this end, but they have not proved sufficient, for their support is not always assured, and not infrequently they are of a sporadic nature. It would seem, if anything permanent and effective is to be accomplished, the State must assist. While the American Government is not a paternal one, yet there is a limit to all forms of rules here; extremes can produce evil. Major McClaghry, chief of the Chicago police, and an expert of long experience, considers first among the causes of crime in this country "criminal parentage, association, and neglect of children by their parents." It is to be presumed that parents will properly care for their children, treating them kindly, and allowing them an opportunity for at least an ele-

mentary education When this presumption is found to be untrue, the State provides for the appointment of a suitable person to act as guardian. But, as Mr. Martindale^a says, there are two defects in this method: "First, there is no officer or person or body charged specially with the duty of investigating and prosecuting the cases. Secondly, as such children have no estates out of which they may be maintained and educated, the court can find no guardian who will undertake the task at his own charge. Experience in such cases shows that it is difficult to induce neighbors to prosecute. The fear of revenge, reluctance to attend court, a common belief that a child belongs to a parent, who has a right to do as he pleases with it, and sympathy for a mother deprived of her child, however depraved she may be, are all prevailing motives which hinder the prosecution of such cases.

Prof. Francis Wayland,^b of the Yale law school, says that "it may require a little time to convince the community that a father has no inalienable right to brutalize his children and to conduct under his roof a normal school for crime; that a mother has no inalienable right to turn her apartments into a brothel. A haunt of vice and crime is not a home, and we do not advocate institutional life save as, and always as, a temporary resting place under humane conditions, as to care and comfort, until a permanent home can be provided."

According to the most thorough study yet made^c of the conditions of the weakling classes, 20 per cent of the school fees can not be collected; 10 per cent of the children attending are in want of food; some come without breakfast because the parents do not get it for them; as a little boy said, "his mother got drunk and could not get up to get it." Such children are very irregular in attendance, which is a great annoyance to a teacher, not to say a waste of public money. Such children live in the poorest neighborhood; they have no regular meals; fully a third live in one room with their parents; their waking hours are divided between school and the street; saloons are sometimes as numerous as one to every hundred adults; those on the verge of pauperism patronize them. Yet there is good order in these schools; the street urchins are trained to respond to right rule, affording ground for hope as to their future. At home they have no training; they need encouragement; they should be lifted up from their surroundings and gain a taste for better things. The difficulty is caused more frequently by poverty and shiftlessness at home than by neglect and vice, yet the latter have great influence. Compulsion in its ordinary form is practically useless in making such children regular in attendance at school. The parents are characterized by improvidence, want of purpose, and no regard for the future of their children; as soon as their boy is through with school he is put on work which prepares him for nothing, and thus he drifts into casual employment, trusts to chance for a living, and gradually sinks. The poverty, misery, and vice of the next generation will to a large extent come from the slum children. Their need is education in habits of decency, cleanliness, self-respect, the rudiments of civilization and domestic life; their instruction should not be too abstract nor technical in the sense of fitting them for competitive examinations, clerkships, or college, but rather for the workshop, factory, trades, or the home.

^a "Child-saving legislation," North American Review, September, 1891.

^b "Child-saving legislation," reprint from National Baptist, December 3, 1891.

^c Charles Booth, Labor and Life of the People, London.

RELATION OF EDUCATION TO CRIME.

It is common suspicion of a number of writers that education has little influence in decreasing crime. That the meaning of this may be clearly understood it will be necessary to cite a few opinions.

Monsieur Tarde^a speaks of the action of education upon insanity and suicide, which increase *pari passu*, but he refers only to primary education. He remarks that the restrictive action of education over crime is not seen, for where there is the most illiteracy there is not always the most crime; in Spain the proportion of illiteracy to the population of the whole country is two-thirds, but only half of the crime comes from this number. In 1883, 64 of condemned assassins knew how to read or write; 67 did not; there is one condemned for theft out of every 6,453 with common education and 8,283 with no education.^b In the country, where there is less education than in the city, there are 8 prisoners a year for 100,000 inhabitants, but 16 prisoners for 100,000 inhabitants in the cities. Education modifies crime. Thus within forty or fifty years the stealing of grain has diminished while that of jewels has increased; also the proportion of crime against chastity has been very large, a probable effect of the emancipation and refinement of mind. Therefore, according to Monsieur Tarde, "the quantity of crime *en bloc* is not at all attacked by the diffusion of primary education. The remedy should be to proclaim the necessity of sacrifice, the insufficiency of the motive of personal interest, and the opportunity to elevate by æsthetical education of the highest sort and to spread professional education as far as possible." From Tarde's point of view, however, primary education is necessary, as it is a condition of the higher and professional, even if we should admit that *per se* it is without effect.

According to Proal,^c instruction is not sufficient to repress crime; morality is not an attribute of thought, but of will; spiritual beliefs and respect of God are necessary. Instruction does not do away with egotism. Literary and philosophical studies have much more moral influence than those that are scientific.

Victor Hugo liked to say that he who opens a school closes a prison. But Proal says many schools have been opened, but no prisons closed; criminality has not diminished while education has increased. Nicolay^d insists that if defective instruction is the cause of every evil, then (1) there should be less morality in the country, where instruction is less cared for, than in the city; (2) the sense of duty should be more feeble in woman than in man. But the contrary is the truth—the city population, which is only three-tenths of the whole, furnishes almost half the number of accused, and women commits four times as few offenses and six times as few crimes as man.

^a *La Criminalité comparée*, Paris, 1890.

^b Jimeno Agius, *la Criminalidad en España*. *Revista de España*, 1885.

^c *Le Crime et la peine*, Paris, 1892.

^d *Les enfants mal élèves*, Paris, 1891.

Lombroso,^a by comparing 500 criminals with normal men, finds the following:

| | Delinquents. | Normals. |
|---------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | <i>Per cent.</i> | <i>Per cent.</i> |
| 1. Analphabets | 12 | 6 |
| 2. Elementary instruction | 95 | 67 |
| 3. Superior instruction | 12 | 27 |

The delinquents are inferior to the normal in the two extremes, but not so in elementary instruction. But there is great variation, according to the category of criminals; 25 per cent of violators and assassins are analphabets, but only 9 per cent of criminals against property, and less than 1 per cent of swindlers. In Austria the class committing the least crime for fourteen years consisted of those engaged in scientific work;^b but such men are engaged in tedious and long investigations; they are critical, and their emotional nature is little developed, so that they see more clearly the folly of crime, and that its reaction generally returns with great severity upon the offender. But with poets and artists crime is more common, since the emotional nature is more prominent. The artists are tempted by professional jealousy. While sculptors and architects manifest little tendency to crime, painters produce their quota, owing perhaps to their abuse of alcohol. But crime is more frequent in the liberal professions. In Italy and France 6 per cent had received a superior culture, in Bavaria 4 per cent, and in Austria 3.6 per cent. Lombroso adds that these numbers are relatively greater than in the other classes of society. In Italy there is 1 criminal for every 345 professional men ("professionistes"), 1 for every 278 proprietors, 1 for every 419 farmers, and 1 for every 428 employees.^c For those who exercise a profession science is not an end in itself, but a means, thus giving less force to conquer the passions. The physician can easily give poison, the lawyer commit perjury, and the teacher sin against chastity.

But there are other authorities who take a somewhat different view. Büchner (*Force et matière*) says that defect of intelligence, want of education, and poverty are the three great factors in crime. Beccaria asserts that the evils that flow from knowledge are in inverse ratio to its diffusion and the benefits directly proportional; to prevent crime, enlightenment should accompany liberty. A bold impostor, who is never a commonplace man, is adored by the ignorant and despised by the enlightened. The surest, yet most difficult, means of preventing crime is to improve education; inclining the youth to virtue by the path of feeling,

SUMMARY OF STATISTICS ON EDUCATION AND CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES, GATHERED BY THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

The whole number of inmates received by the prisons and penitentiaries reporting to the Bureau for the year 1891 was 27,103. The average age was 26½ years.

^a *L'Homme Criminel*, Paris, 1887.

^b Messedaglia, *Statistiche criminali dell' Impero Austriaco*.

^c Oettingen, *Die Moral-Statistik*.

Education.—The education of the inmates was as follows: 13 per cent of those reporting could neither read nor write; 1 per cent claimed to have been in college; 4 per cent in high school or academy; 48 per cent in grammar grade of public school; 20 per cent in private elementary school. Of those discharged, 3 per cent were unable to read or write.

Those institutions reporting are probably among the best, and it is also probable that their per cent of education is higher than institutions which have not sent in returns; so that were it possible to obtain answers from all the prisons the percentages of illiteracy and want of general education would be somewhat greater.

Religion.—As to the religion of inmates, 42 per cent were Catholics, 0.8 per cent Jews, 33 per cent Protestants, and 16 per cent of no religion.

Nativity.—Forty-two per cent were natives of the State and 43 per cent were natives of other States. This confirms the well-known migratory tendency in criminals. Eleven per cent were natives of Ireland, 3 per cent of Germany, 3 per cent of Canada, 4 per cent of England and Wales, 0.8 per cent of Scotland, 0.4 of France, 1 per cent of Italy, and 4 per cent of other countries.

Character of offense.—There were 11 per cent of the offenses against person, 39 per cent against property, 47 per cent against public morals, and 3 per cent against government.

Intelligence.—The number of those defective in intelligence was 19 per cent; 33 per cent showed fair intelligence; 38 per cent were good, and 5 per cent excellent in intelligence.

Subjects taught.—Twenty institutions reported 124 teachers (leaving 20 with no school) and 2,722 pupils. The average daily session of school was about two hours and twenty minutes. Reading was taught in 18 institutions, writing in 16, spelling in 14, grammar in 11, geography in 9, history in 3, the Bible in 2, and literature, algebra, ethics, and religion each, in 1. The results here given do not include Sunday schools or Sunday teaching.

Employment.—The proportion of inmates regularly employed before entering penitentiaries was 38 per cent; 22 per cent had learned some mechanical or manufacturing trade before entering the prisons.

Parentage.—Sixty-two per cent were reported living with their parents until 10 years of age; 69 per cent of parents were poor, 18 per cent comfortable, and 6 per cent well to do. Sixty-three per cent resided in the city and 36 per cent in the country.

Nature of criminal.—Considered incorrigible, 10 per cent; institutions reporting, 26. Considered as returning to crime, 35 per cent; institutions reporting, 28. Considered as owing crime to circumstances, 60 per cent; institutions reporting, 21. Considered as owing crime to criminal propensities, 35 per cent; institutions reporting, 22.

Health of criminal.—Eighty-two per cent were reported as having good health, 11 per cent fair health, and 6 per cent bad health.

Conduct of criminal.—Sixty-eight per cent showed good conduct, 23 per cent fair, and 7 per cent bad conduct.

Trustworthiness of criminal.—Fifteen of the 34 penitentiaries reporting consider the most trustworthy criminals to be those committing offenses against person. Sixteen of the 30 reporting consider the least trustworthy criminals to be those against property. The remaining

answers were so varied that further classification could not be carried out.

Pressing practical reforms recommended.—Education specially recommended by 7 institutions; strict discipline recommended by 7 institutions; kind treatment recommended by 5 institutions; religious influences recommended by 5 institutions; teaching of trades recommended by 4 institutions; occupation recommended by 4 institutions; better classification recommended by 4 institutions; assistance to discharged prisoners recommended by 2 institutions. The other recommendations were not sufficiently similar to classify further.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION.

One method of criminology is to study a few cases as thoroughly as possible. In a new field of empirical study the investigation of details is indispensable, if there is to be any attempt at scientific treatment. The reader may, in addition, gain an independent insight into typical cases and the method of treatment in our penal institutions.

The value of a single case lies in the fact that repetition is the rule in crime. And for this reason the study of single cases is probably the best method of gaining a definite knowledge of the causes, difficulties, and remedies for crime. The method of gathering the facts is by visiting different reformatories and prisons. The superintendent or warden was asked to name the purest murderer, the most habitual thief, and the meanest person generally among the prisoners under his charge. One aim is to study only those cases about which enough is known to place their real nature beyond a doubt.

We should give in detail the complaints and other records of each case investigated, with the additional testimony gathered from the officers. These facts are of more scientific value than those gathered outside of prison, because they are not only more trustworthy, but the environment of the prisoner is more definitely known. Each complaint generally represents many repetitions of the same offense, for an officer naturally refrains from making complaints, as he may get the ill will of the prisoner, which adds difficulties to the duties of both.

Our order of procedure is: (1) To decide upon the cases to be investigated; (2) to copy all the records of the institution; (3) to interview all the officers who had knowledge of the prisoner through experience; (4) to interview and examine the prisoner himself.

By copying the records one becomes familiar with the facts, and is thus better able to question the officers to the point. After this the investigator will probably be well prepared to interview the prisoner. He should not let the prisoner know beforehand that he knows anything about him. This is the safest way to avoid errors and deceptions, for the prisoner is easily caught in a lie and often becomes so bewildered that he finally concludes to tell the truth as best he can. Some cases are so abnormal and they falsify so easily from habit that they are unconscious of it at times. Or they may be too lazy or indifferent to tell the truth. It is not advisable to contradict a prisoner, but to permit him to continue until his own words involve him in additional confessions. In making requests that might not be granted by the prisoner it is advisable to defer them to the last, for

the better one knows a criminal the more open the criminal becomes and is more willing to act; otherwise one may get his ill will, which makes further investigation difficult, if not useless.

Many details should be given that in themselves may seem unimportant, but the object should be to present each case fully and exactly as it is, so that the reader can be wholly independent of the writer in forming his judgment. It must be borne in mind, however, that a slight offense in the "complaints," as the leaving of a utensil out of place, can indicate the exact time when the prisoner begins to relax his will to reform; while a good report signifies a new resolution of the will. Thus the series of complaints record the moral pulse-beats of the prisoner. It is also true that what might seem a very slight offense outside the prison is not so within; for in every well-regulated reformatory institution there is a minimum of temptation to do wrong and a maximum of continuous restraint to do right, so that the inmate may be gradually educated in the formation of good habits, which are his surest safeguards on release.

DUTIES OF REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

Reformatory institutions should take more care in gaining knowledge of the previous life of the criminal, especially concerning his career after leaving the prison, and also in carefully recording his daily life while under their care, thus imparting useful knowledge to society at large. For if there is to be any advancement in the knowledge of crime it lies in the direction of the study of the criminal himself. Our institutions, then, should afford facilities for such study, the very object of which is to furnish a trustworthy basis for the prevention and repression of crime. A clear idea of the causes of criminality is the first rational step toward its cure. And if the cure be possible only to a certain degree, the approximate determination of this degree would be of great practical importance.

Some cases may indicate in general the small amount of exact knowledge there is about human beings in society, since with a comparatively large number of data one is unable to give more than an opinion as to the real cause of the crime; but this should discourage no one, as it is due mainly to our present need of more exact methods of investigation.

It would seem, then, for the present, that criminological studies should be directed toward the investigation of individual criminals as members of society and the race. And it is in the psychology of the criminal that the most important results can be reached. His feelings and thoughts in general and especially at the moment of his crime reveal to us, most of all, his true condition. After this individual study one may pass to the broader fields of criminal sociology and anthropology.

The thorough study of one single individual in the social organism, be he criminal or not, may suggest a method, for the beginning at least, of a scientific sociology.

A sociological study, if it is to be rigid, must be based primarily upon the investigation of the individual, who is the unit in society. It would seem that there can be no scientific sociology without data gathered from investigations of large numbers of individuals in the

social organism. Such a sociology does not exist, but many recent investigations show a tendency in this direction. It is a long and tedious road, for it means a patient study of the individual units to find out what is common to most of them in their mental, moral, and physical development.

It seems natural to the public mind to attribute to a man the characteristics of his work. The surgeon, for instance, is called cruel, but there is perhaps no class of men who do more humane work. It has gone so far that, so to speak, if one studies an apple he eventually may be called an apple.

In the study of the abnormalities and weaknesses of human nature, one may appear as not disapproving of them, because he simply describes the facts without referring to their ethical portent; but the main purpose of scientific method, so far as it can be applied to sociology, is to search out all the facts and present them just as they are. To discuss their value or to determine their detriment to society is more in the province of ethics than of science.

The most impartial individual we can conceive of would be one coming from another planet, who has no special interest upon this earth, except to see things exactly as they are. But such absolute impartiality is impossible; nevertheless, it has been one of the efforts of science to endeavor at least to approximate to such an ideal. A large part of the most rigid science consists in simple and exact description, which should be given, of course, without regard to any views that one may consciously or unconsciously hold.

CRIMINAL PSYCHOLOGY.^a

GENERAL SENSIBILITY.

It is generally admitted that sensibility is less among criminals. Lombroso finds proof in the extent of their tattooing; but the criminals permit also this custom as a guaranty of their reputation; they can manifest a stoicism about it; this resistance of the flesh can have as cause a hypnotic state, as with ecstatic martyrs, or with witches who die crying that they do not feel the flames. The galley slaves dread suffering even more than death (Corre). We shall see that from this physical insensibility comes in great part moral insensibility. Lombroso and Marro find general sensibility one-sixth less and sensibility to pain two-fifths less than in the average person. Touch is obtuse in 44 per cent of criminals, while among noncriminals it is 29 per cent. Although the sense of touch is almost normal in swindlers and thieves, it is always less in murderers.

Meteoric sensibility.—The criminals are more under the influence of the weather than ordinary men. Lombroso found this the case in 29 out of 112; 9 were quarrelsome just before a thunder shower; many were dizzy, had buzzing in the ears, and headache on very windy days.

Sight.—Dr. Bono found 60 per cent of 221 young criminals color-blind, which is more than double that of 800 students and of 590 workmen. Holmgren found the same proportion. Biliakow found

^aFor criminal sociology (Mafia), see Senate Document (by author), No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

50 per cent of 100 murderers color-blind; among normal Russians there were not more than 4.6 per cent.

Schmitz shows that 55 per cent of those distinguishing colors with difficulty are subject to grosser nervous diseases, as epilepsy, chorea, etc.

Hearing.—Biliakow found dullness in hearing predominant in the left ear.

Sometimes the criminals pretend to be more feeble than they really are. A common character is agility, especially among thieves, some of whom have the spryness of the monkey; they climb the most slender trees, and jump upon the roof and thus enter the house.

Left-handedness.—We give a comparative table (Lombroso) of 133 criminals and 117 young men:

| | Criminals. | Normal. |
|--|------------------|------------------|
| | <i>Per cent.</i> | <i>Per cent.</i> |
| Maximum force of left hand | 23 | 14 |
| Maximum force of right hand | 67 | 70 |
| Maximum force of equal of both hands | 9 | 14 |

From another table of 261 condemned criminals:

| | Total number. | Number left handed. |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| Criminals by occasion | 96 | 9 |
| Criminals by nature | 145 | 28 |
| Forgers and dextrous criminals | 34 | 10 |
| Thieves | 141 | 10 |
| Murderers | 52 | 4 |
| Violators | 10 | 1 |
| Women criminals | 44 | 10 |

In a large number of cases sensibility is duller on the right than on the left side; there is a predominance of cranium and brain on the right side in criminals; it is generally admitted that left-handedness is the result of the superiority of the right hemisphere. Broca, Ogle, and Jackson have remarked that in aphasia on the left, the frontal convolutions on the right show more extravasations. Dr. Lépine mentions cases of left-handed people with lesions in the left frontal convolutions who did not have aphasia. When a left-handed person is suspected and treated as inauspicious, he naturally exaggerates this fact. The idea of swindling is associated with left-handedness in Lombardy and Germany (Linker).

Corre remarks that with right-handed people, not only the right hands, but the teeth on the right side are more developed; while the teeth on the left side show less vitality and more of a tendency to decay.

There is a superiority among forgers and those criminals where cleverness is necessary; 14.3 per cent are left handed among the men, 22 per cent among the women. Out of 771 ordinary women, only 4.3 per cent, and out of 238 workmen, 5.8 per cent, are left handed; among the insane, 4.13 per cent to 4.27 per cent. (Tiberius was left handed according to Tacitus.)

Anomalies of mobility.—Virgilio in 194 cases of chronic diseases found a proportionally large number of epileptics; also ataxia and

chorea (especially in thieves as compared with homicides) were frequent affections. Clark finds crime among 11 per cent of common epileptics.

Blushing.—Twice as many criminals as insane are incapable of blushing, according to Amadei, Tonninni, and Bergesio. It is admitted that the Chinese and the Malays blush little; the Hindoos rarely, and the South Americans also little. Of 98 criminal young men, 44 per cent did not blush; of 122 female criminals, 81 per cent did not blush when examined by Pasini and Lombroso.

Andromico did not find one among regular, legal prostitutes who blushed when asked as to her trade or profession; one, however, blushed when reproached as to acts contrary to nature.

In the house of detention the homicides related their deeds openly and without blushing; those who had poisoned their husbands blushed a little. Those condemned for theft blushed to the ears first, and then in the face; but the prostitutes among these gave no sign of blushing.

EFFECTS OF INSENSIBILITY.

Moral insensibility is as great as physical in criminals. Although the criminal is not entirely devoid of moral feeling, he has certainly much less of it than normal persons. Pity for the suffering of others is the sentiment that first becomes feeble, if not extinct, in the criminal. In order to obtain a real insight into the criminal himself, we can do no better than give some of the words and acts of the criminals themselves as related by Lombroso. Here is one, on coldly telling of the fatal blow which killed his wife, said he asked her pardon for it, but she refused him. Another, on whom the view of the dying victim had no effect, says, "I kill a man just as I drink a glass of wine." Another kills his mother with fifty cuts from a knife; becoming fatigued, he throws himself on the bed near by and sleeps peacefully. A normal man, pushed into crime by passion or by unexpected circumstances, would have made efforts to conceal his murder. One adorns the body of his wife as if for a wedding, places it on the table between him and the two gravediggers, and in this position the three eat their repast. Another, having cut his brother up into pieces, and not wishing to be interrupted at his dinner, when they brought the members of his victim to him, said: "They are much better there than in my stomach;" and when threatened with the guillotine, he replied, "You can divide me into two, but not into six, as I have done to this one." One, whose brother was being executed, stole a purse and four watches, and said, "What a misfortune that my brother is not here to have his share."

Some speak so coldly and unconcernedly of their crimes in court that they would be taken for witnesses rather than authors of their deeds. One, a few hours before his execution, asks for a boiled chicken, and eats it all with a good appetite. Another, from the three executioners, desires to choose his "professor." One reminds the priest (preaching to him repentance) of the bottle of wine which he had promised him fifteen days before; and when on the point of mounting the scaffold, the last and only thing which he recommended to his wife, who was his accomplice, was to give him credit for 37 francs. While one was being executed, his accomplice, who was to follow, arranged his hair quietly. A former executioner (about to be

guillotined), seeing that the instrument of death was not well arranged, fixed it, disposed the block into a convenient position, and quietly placed his head upon it.

There are many curious things related as to the last hour. An assassin, while his head was already on the block, hearing his accomplice complain, said to him, "Do not forget that by accident we were subject to one more disease." An executioner, not being able to seize the neck of one having the goiter, excused himself, swearing that that had never happened to him; "Nor to me either," replied the culprit. Another complains of the bad condition of the street through which he passed on his way to execution. A savant said on the scaffold, pointing his finger at the ax and at the block, "Here is Alpha and Omega, and thou, executioner, art Beta."

One who smoked his cigar on hearing his death sentence read, said: "I smoke this cigar with premeditation and lying in wait." Another was occupied with his unedited works. Another gives lessons in hygiene to the jailers. Another replies to the executioner, who hurried him, saying the hour was advanced: "Be not fearful, they will not commence without me."

Insensibility is shown by the frequency of murders after an execution at which the murderers had been witnesses, by the nicknames given to instruments of execution and executioners, and by recitations where the favorite subject is the death penalty. Lombroso considers these facts as one of the most powerful arguments in favor of abolishing the death penalty, because it turns from crime fewer individuals than it leads into crime, owing to the law of imitation, which has such force over the masses; this species of horrible charm attracts the crowd around the victims of justice; this doleful and solemn show, so appropriate to please the vanity of other evil doers, goes so far as to give veneration to the bodies of the executed as sacred relics. Out of 167 condemned to death in England, 164 had been present at executions. While many criminals show extraordinary courage, owing much to this insensibility, the majority of evil doers are cowards when the excitement is over and they find themselves in unexpected peril. The chief of police of Ravenna learned that a dangerous assassin had boasted that he would kill him; the chief of police sent for the assassin, put a pistol in his hand and invited him to shoot him; the assassin immediately began to turn pale and tremble.

It is probable that acts of courage on the part of criminals are often due to their insensibility and to a childish impetuosity which hides the danger and makes them blind when they have a purpose to reach or a passion to satisfy. This insensibility and the gravity of the death of others and their own, in connection with their strong passions, explain a frequent disproportion between the crime and its motive. Thus one kills his comrade because he snores too loud, or because he refuses to black his boots, or a quarrel for 5 centimes ends in assassination. This moral insensibility indicates why cruelty is found so often among persons who seem at times accessible to goodness. Aberration of feeling characterizes the criminal and the insane; and a high degree of intelligence can be found with a tendency to crime or insanity. This accords with the fact that the alterations of the face and eyes are more frequent than those of the cranium. The anomalies of intelligence are more in relation with those of the cranium, and the anomalies of the feeling more with those of the face and especially the eyes.

SENTIMENTS.

Among criminals many good sentiments are wanting, but some remain. Troppmann, after having killed an entire family, wept on hearing the name of his mother. Some love their wives and children. La Sala, who said she loved cats more than her children, and who caused her lover to be assassinated, had a passion for her accomplice, and passed many nights in true charity work at the beds of the dying. Another after killing a man risked his life in order to save a cat which was about to be precipitated from a roof. (*Memoires de Claude*, xxi.) Another commits murder in order to enrich his wife and child whom he loves. Parent-Duchâtelet has shown that some prostitutes support their aged parents and companions; some also have an extreme passion for their lovers in spite of blows and cruel treatment from them.

INSTABILITY.

Instability is always present in some form in criminals. A certain criminal confessed to Lombroso in these words: "The cause of my crimes is a too great propensity for friendship; I can not see one of my friends offended, even if he is far away, without raising my hands to avenge him." One pushed to his first murder by excessive love of his mistress, killed her a little time afterwards, because she reproached him. Another loved his mother passionately, but in a fit of anger threw her from the balcony. One had loved a woman for many years, but two months after his marriage, he desired to get rid of her. Prostitutes allow their paramours to strike them till blood comes; but later the least pretext can estrange them. Parent-Duchâtelet found some who had changed the tattooed initials of their paramours thirty times.

VANITY.

Vanity increases inversely with merit. While sufficiently developed in artists and litterateurs, it reaches its highest stage in criminals. La Gala inscribed in his cell "To-day, March 24, La Gala has learned to make stockings." Lacenaire was affected much more by the criticism of his bad verses than by his death sentence. One of the most common causes of modern crimes is to satisfy vanity, to shine in the world, "to cut a figure." A criminal and his mistress killed, one his wife, the other her husband, and married one another in order to save "their reputation in the world."

Sometimes an extreme vanity about being out of debt has led to murder. When a noted thief wears a certain kind of vest or cravat, his associates adopt his style. With the majority of criminals there is no blushing; to say of one that he is a "skirmisher"—that is, an assassin—is a great compliment. A certain priest of fine and gentle spirit, respected by all, was murdered; none could account for it; it was afterwards found that a very young man, pointing the priest out to his comrades, killed him simply to show his courage and criminal virility. The criminal is proud of his strength, beauty, courage, riches wrongly acquired and of short duration, and of his success in crime. As in most classes, the criminals have their aristocracy. Their bands are jealous of one another. Prostitutes always pretend to belong to the superior grade; the phrase, "*Vous êtes une femme de vingt sous*," is considered an outrage.

The stealer of the thousands makes fun of the poor pickpocket.

The assassins consider themselves superior to the thieves and swindlers, but the forgers do not associate with the assassins; the highway robbers despise the petty thieves. A highway robber once said: "I can be a thief, but, thank God, I am a respectable man." After killing a whole family a criminal rejoiced that all St. Petersburg were thinking about him. "Well," he said, "my comrades will see now if they were right in thinking that I would never be talked about." A vulgar sharper boasted at court of imaginary crimes in order to appear as a great assassin. A veteran criminal said: "The brigands of the present are inferior to those of my time, who flourished in their purity, who were not politicians, but worked for the love of their trade." Such vanity, in connection with lack of foresight, aids in bringing criminals to justice. Just after a strange murder a criminal said to one of his mistresses: "Yes; I love them, the women, but in a peculiar way; I choke them after having possessed them; my pleasure consists in cutting their throats. Oh, you will soon hear me talked about." An inscription on a tombstone was as follows: "Here lies poor Tulac, tired of stealing in this world, departs to steal in the other." Some dream of reaching celebrity through crime, and, it may be added, they often succeed. They like to be talked about, see their names and photographs in the papers, etc., are pleased to give their autographs. They sometimes receive even offers of marriage from respectable women. A prisoner tried to kill one of his fellows because another criminal, who was on trial at the time in the city where the prisoner was, received "too much attention," and especially "too many bouquets," from sentimental ladies; and he desired to be lionized also. He did not succeed as well as he expected, for he did not strike his victim quite hard enough to kill him, but had ten years more added to his sentence for the injury he did. The developed pride of criminals is a farce; they are too good to work, lazy to act, and lazy to feel; it is necessary to stimulate their natural torpor by their grosser appetite; yet this is only temporary in its effect. Crime, like prostitution, is fed by idleness. One-sixth of the accused in France are of the unoccupied; they are fatigued easily, and do much less than ordinary workmen. Some pose as unfortunates, victims of fatality, criminals by the hatred of an unjust society. As there is no virtuous man without weaknesses, so there are many criminals with altruism worthy of praise, but at the same time allied with an antialtruism. Some great criminals are not without honor; they can be encouraged to better things; they have some pity for others; but those hardened to crime and vice manifest little or no altruism, and when this sentiment is present it is of short duration.

VENGEANCE.

An excessive vanity is one of the main antecedents to vengeance. A certain baron caused a person to be assassinated because in a procession he failed to stop the statue of the Virgin before his house. "To see the man die whom you hate is a divine pleasure, and to hate and avenge is the only thing I enjoy," was the assertion of one criminal. A criminal having a slight altercation with his friend, who had supported him for many years, struck him and tried to throw him into a well. He was stopped. His wounded friend pardoned him, but he answered, "I will be condemned, but patience. I regret that I did not accom-

plish it. If I get out of prison, I will fix him." He kept his promise. Another, just before dying, made his comrades swear to kill certain farmers with whom he had not yet settled accounts. A woman had poisoned her neighbor, who was opposed to the marriage of her son. On being condemned to death and invited to grant pardon to her victim, after the example of our Savior, replied: "God has done that which pleased Him; but I will never pardon." Another tightened the cloak of his friend for a joke, but accidentally caused a slight tear. He apologized and promised to make it good. His friend, however, would not listen to him, but stabbed him instead of accepting the apology.

A case like to the vengeance of savages was that of a certain criminal who, being insulted at night by an unknown person, armed himself and struck the first man he chanced to meet.

CRUELTY. ^a

Out of 860 thefts in London during ten years, only five were with violence to the person. Criminals who kill for the sake of killing are feared by their companions. After murdering a prostitute, and finding only a watch, a criminal was so enraged that he ate the scraps of her flesh. When blood has been once tasted by those who take pleasure in it, to kill becomes a burning passion. One complained while dying, because having killed ninety-nine men he had not made it an even hundred. Another took such extreme pleasure in drinking blood that when it was not convenient to take it from his neighbor he drank his own. In cases of this kind carnal love is often found in which the sight of blood stimulates the sexual passion. In fact, bloody scenes are often followed by the lowest debauches. Thus after bloody battles, an abnormal impulse to rape sometimes manifests itself. It is a recurrence of what was generally practiced in warfare among savages. Thus in some murders at present the greatest atrocities are committed solely because they cause intense sexual excitement in individuals who are so abnormal or so degenerated as to obtain such excitement in no other way. Murders of this nature are not due to the love of cruelty for its own sake, as is generally assumed, but they owe their cause to the love of sexual excitement which the cruelty creates. Thus in rape of an atrocious nature, it is not improbable that the cruelty is practiced, not for the purpose of accomplishing the outrage, but solely for the sexual gratification that the cruelty itself generates.

In another work the author has considered several cases of this nature, two of which are self-confessed. One of these is that of a sexton of a church, who brained a little girl, but did not attempt rape. Just before his execution he confessed to braining a prostitute also, and described the passion that led him to commit both his crimes. The description was so obscene that it could not be printed, although the case was published in legal form. The atrocities of "Jack the Ripper," so called, and of similar murderers (Frenchy, of New York) are without doubt caused by a pathological sexual passion.

Debauches may be the result of forced chastity, as in the case of priests, soldiers, and shepherds. The trades that expose to contact with blood, as the butcher; or impose a solitary life, as that of a shepherd or hunter, have their influence. This species of lust murder and mutilation seems to be increasing. It indicates the lowest depth of

^aFor deeper forms of cruelty, see "Le Criminel-type" (by author), Paris, 1895.

immorality. In London the common street walkers, not to mention the so-called higher grades of fast women, naturally become very much excited and nervous when such murders as those committed by "Jack the Ripper" are reported.

There is also among criminals deep but temporary alterations in their character; as a fit of irritation without the least apparent cause. The jailors recognize it; they say there is a bad quarter of an hour during the day, when criminals are not their own masters, not themselves. This peculiarity has been noticed among savages and animals.

For cruelty and ferocity women reach the extreme. Some of their methods of torture can not be described. It was women who carried out and put on sale the bodies of "gendarmes" at Paris; who forced a man to eat his own roasted flesh; women who carried on their poles human entrails. It was a woman who caused a young girl to die of starvation, forcing her daily to sit at her table, which was richly served, without allowing her to touch a thing.

WINE AND GAMBLING.

After criminal vanity is satisfied, drinking and gambling generally follow. Some criminals commit crime in order to be able to become drunk; the cowardly, because they find in drunkenness the courage necessary to carry out their misdeeds, and think also they can find in this a means of justification; because also drunken revelries push young men into crime. The saloon is the place where the criminals find their accomplices; it is the abode where they not only meditate their crimes, but where they spend the money obtained by crime; the saloon is the one true home of the criminal, and sometimes the keeper of the place is their banker. Of 10,000 murders committed in France, 2,374 occurred in saloons; out of 49,423 arrests in New York, 30,507 were drunkards. Alcoholism is the cause of much of the paralysis and atheroma, consisting in a fatty degeneration in the intima of the arteries. The rich prostitutes abuse champagne; the poor drink whisky in order to chase away disagreeable thoughts, or to gain temporary strength to carry on their trade. There are exceptional cases of thieves, prostitutes, and swindlers who are total abstainers. Gambling is quite common among criminals; there is a fascination in amusing themselves with the money of others, which at times is a burning passion. The criminal is between two fires; on the one hand, unbridled lust for the property of others; on the other, madness beyond parallel to squander stolen money. This makes it evident how many are always in poverty, although possessing large sums at times; but cupidity is not the true spur to crime, it is the brutal passions which are impossible to satisfy. The miserly man is less carried into crime than the spendthrift. This haphazard life between plenty and poverty is also one of the main causes of premature death.

OTHER TENDENCIES.

The criminals like the table and love the dance. Here is one who made his debut as thief in order to buy macaroni; another at Paris, who steals in order to attend the dances. The love of the criminal is almost wholly sensual and savage; one boasts of twelve mistresses; some who are married exchange their wives for money; in one case a

dog and five florins was the consideration. An American counterfeiter said once that his mistresses were numerous enough to form a line around the town. Carnal love soon lessens in thieves; while in swindlers, poisoners, and some assassins it may persist; among a good number the physical incentive passes over from a state of partial impotence into excesses of much more violence, but they are less durable and assume a periodic form. Platonic love is very exceptional among thieves; many prefer sentimental ways to obscene; female thieves take care of their lovers when sick, and remain true to them for a certain length of time, unless their sickness continues too long. Among prostitutes there are all grades of passion, from the lowest pederasty to the love of music, books, pictures, medals, and flowers; they are often impetuous and violent; nothing will stop them from getting satisfaction, as they lack foresight and seldom think of the future.

RELATION TO INSANITY.

Criminals have much in common with the insane, as violence, instability of certain passions, moral and physical insensibility, exaggerated idea of themselves, and sometimes passions for drink, and desire to recall their crimes; but there is this difference, the insane rarely care for gambling and revelry, and much more often take a dislike to those nearest to them, as wife and children; the criminal must have society, while the insane prefer solitude, and thus plots are rare in the asylums.

SENSIBILITY AND PASSIONS.

The criminal approaches more the savage. The moral sense of the savage is animal or extinct, but in impetuosity and instability they are much alike. The savage is a child with the physical powers of a man. He has a great love for gambling, but he is not very greedy. Some, after losing all their money, sell things, gamble themselves away, and if young sell themselves outside of the tribe. The Chinaman will gamble his last coat away in the cold of winter. There is in the savage a mixture of cowardice and courage; lust and the love of blood mingle; love is lust. Alcoholic liquors are fatal to savages, tending to destroy the entire race. The savages, where custom or religious precept have prohibited liquor, supply its place by curious means, as movements of the head up and down, or right and left, which produce a like effect. Laziness is also a characteristic of savages. Some of them dislike all work, saying: "To suffer in order to suffer; it is better to die than to work."

VULNERABILITY.

Analgesia gives some explanation of the hardness of criminals. Lombroso saw a thief whose right forehead had been fractured laterally by a hatchet; in fifteen days the thief was well and no reaction occurred. There is also the case of a murderer (a mason) who, on account of a reproach, threw himself from a third story into the court, got up laughing, and continued his work. Lombroso cites the case of an infanticide who performed the Cæsarian operation upon herself with a kitchen knife and killed the child; she recovered without dressing the wound and without fever.

FEELING AS TO DEATH.

Death is accepted without trouble by few criminals. Some fear it for itself, for the pains that accompany it; others for the unknown behind it. In general, the criminals are afraid of the thought of death. They may seem cold-blooded before the magistrate, yet there are none who do not expect to obtain a commutation of sentence. Of 24 women, 5 died cowardly, and expressed the most revolting cynicism at the stake; 18 mounted the scaffold calmly (for the most part comforted by religious exhortations), resigned and repentant, and some with sadness, but without fainting. Of 64 men, 25 died cowardly, 4 were noisy, 1 excited, 1 was loquacious, 1 yawned, 12 were cynical to the end, and finished without apparent trouble, as if in a theater chosen by them; 5 died with indifference, 1 with the insensibility of a brute or the unconsciousness of the insane; 18 died courageously, calm, resigned (generally prepared by exhortations of the priest), and showed repentance. Among these were all grades. The lowest criminals appeared the most sincere; the higher grades, not desiring to leave behind any doubt which might diminish the horror of their memory and the shame reflected on their family, although accepting religious aid, persisted in proclaiming their innocence.

Criminals hold to life; under bad conditions they fear to lose it; but before imminent and certain death a few are courageous, thinking it is of short duration and little pain. In women the intensity of the religious feeling gives them superiority at the critical moment. Once in crime, woman is often more cruel and raging than man; in terror few faint; women also have habits more reserved than men. Men manifest gross and studied attitudes more often as marks of fear, or as an index of insensibility. Vanity, excessive in most criminals, gives a show of courage too blustering and too apparent to be permanent. Some have fear of being used for anatomical studies and of having their deformities shown to everyone; or they imagine they might possibly feel the scalpel. In the English army no better preventive of suicide is found than having it known that bodies of suicides go to dissecting rooms. The less courageous throw themselves into the arms of the priest, and deny their crime; others often confessing their faults to him who grants divine pardon, proclaim with a loud voice their innocence and die in contradiction with themselves.

RELIGION OF CRIMINALS.

While some of the chiefs of the bands ridicule religion, the majority of criminals believe in it; many of these make a sensual use and accommodation of it for their personal advantage. To a priest who was exhorting repentance, a criminal asked, "How many hotels he would reach before arriving at Paradise, as he only had 6 cents to spend on the route." The criminal's god of peace and justice is a benevolent guardian and an accomplice.

According to Lombroso the free men are more frequently in the churches; but Lombroso adds that 61 per cent of the violators and 56 per cent of the assassins frequent the church:

| | Criminals (500). | Normals (100). |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Per cent. | Per cent. |
| Regular attendance at church..... | 46 | 57 |
| Irregular attendance | 25 | 13 |
| Absence | 38 | 29 |

Ferri found only 1 who professed to be an atheist out of 200 assassins; 7 of the others showed an exaggerated devotion, 5 were strong in the faith; the rest, while scoffing at the priests, affirmed that they believed in God. One said, "He does not depend upon me to be a good man; it is God who gives this sentiment." Out of 2,480 who were tattooed, 238 had religious symbols. In their slang, God is the great "Mek;" the soul is "the perpetual;" in Spanish the church is called the sainted. These facts point to a belief in God and the immortality of the soul. The Bohemian murderers think they obtain divine pardon if they wear the shirt a year which they had on at the time of the murder. A criminal having killed 12 soldiers and a priest, believed himself invulnerable, because he kept on his breast a consecrated offering. Some bands place sacred images in the woods and groves where they keep candles burning. A criminal after strangling 3 women was said to be the most assiduous and sincere at church and confessional. Three criminals refused point-blank to eat on Good Friday, and when the director of the prison inquired of them about it, they replied: "What? Do you take us to be excommunicated?"

A woman criminal who had strangled a little girl, on hearing her death sentence, turned and said, "Death is nothing; the essential is to save the soul, as I have saved mine; I mock at the rest." A notorious criminal of Milan, who had been condemned for 34 murders, attended mass every day; he preached Christian morality and religion continually. A young man of Naples, who had killed his father, had asked of a Madonna for the force necessary to commit the deed. He said, "I have the proof that she aided me, for at the first blow of the club that I gave my father fell dead, and I am extremely feeble." A woman places the poisoning of her husband "under divine protection." In urging another on to crime, one said, "I will come, and I will have God inspire thee." Another, having stolen to found a chapel, continued to steal in order to furnish it. After strangling his mistress, a criminal gave her absolution "in articulo mortis," then sold the proceeds of his thefts to enable him to have mass said.

At the moment when setting fire to the house of her lover a criminal said, "May God and the Holy Virgin do the rest." Numbers of prostitutes pretend to be irreligious in the presence of their lovers and companions, but they are far from being so.

In the ordinary life of the criminal indifference is the rule. Religion does not seem to prevent vice and crime very much among them; it serves sometimes as a pretext to one or the other. Spanish prostitutes place above their beds the Child of the Virgin, like the sinners of the respectable world who go from the church to their paramours. While in many cases this is hypocritical, it is more often, in the case of criminals, frank and naïve. Thus it is that religiousness is unfortunately and too often allied with the baser instincts of man, and such glaring contradictions become social ulcers.

INTELLIGENCE OF CRIMINALS.

In intelligence the criminal is below the average. It must be remembered that the wandering and uncertain life of a criminal and his knocking about in the world favor a development of his intelligence. The first in Europe to investigate and establish an average were the Spaniards. Out of 53,600 about 67 per cent had a fair intelligence, 10 per cent were below the average, and 18 per cent

were depraved mentally; less than 1 per cent possessed hardly any intelligence, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent could not be classified.

The majority feel themselves unqualified for any constant work, and their purpose is to escape every kind of occupation. Lacinaire said to his judges, "I have always been lazy; it is a shame, I admit, but I am sluggish in work. To work is to make an effort, and I feel myself incapable; I have energy only for evil. If it is necessary to work I, care not to live; I prefer to be condemned to death." Another who killed his father because he reproached him for his laziness, preferred to remain all night alone in the stables rather than make the least exertion to go to his bed. This almost universal lazy feeling in criminals explains why most of them, even those of genius, were bad scholars.

Levity, mobility, and inconstancy of mind are characteristics of criminals. In Switzerland it is calculated that 44 per cent of the condemned have been led to crime by their levity.

The prostitutes are so light-minded as not to be able to hold their attention on any idea; it is difficult to reason with them; thus comes their lack of foresight, which aids their patrons to retain them and impoverish them.

Criminals have much credulity. The great criminals never foresee the possibility of their being discovered, and when they are, they are astonished how they could have made such a "great mistake." This levity of mind gives a tendency to raillery and humor; some laugh much, are astounding in the use of slang, turn into ridicule the most cherished and sacred things with a play on words and by puns; of these things they are proud; it is a species of intellectual show, but it indicates a want in the moral sense. They are indifferent, or even have an agreeable feeling where other men would experience fear or pain. Criminals are so deficient in foresight as often to tell of their misdeeds to the police; it is lost time to "play fine" with them; they see a little clearer after arrest than before; this stupidity is illustrated in their becoming confidential friends on first acquaintance; they return to places where there is every probability of being caught. In defending themselves, they often insist on details which have the very opposite effect; thus in giving an account of a murder one insisted that he wounded the victim 13 times and not 14 times. They are superstitious enough to believe in magic and omens. The great criminals, after having shown skill in the preparation for their crimes, do not hold out, but become intoxicated by impunity and lose all prudence. They have little logic; there is a disproportion between the motive and the crime; the execution of crime as a piece of art leaves much to be desired; so that lawyers with more ingenuity than honesty find facts to show the innocence and irresponsibility of their clients. Violence and passion in the execution of the crime increase improvidence; the pleasure of committing a crime and of telling it to others aids in their general bungling. A wife sent to her husband a poisoned cake with a letter inviting him to partake of it after dinner; but she did not see that her husband could not eat it all at once and that a fragment of it joined to the letter would be sufficient to discover the author of the crime. One who had killed his brother proved an alibi, but had forgotten to wash the stains of blood from his coat. Another, after the execution of his crime, lit a lamp, which could help the neighbors or policemen to find traces of him.

While criminals are less capable than ordinary men, yet in the practice of doing the same things continually they seem to the world to be very clever. Even idiots, by practicing the same thing, become very quick. Some thieves enter stores only, some private houses, and in the latter case there are those who steal haphazard and those who make much preparation beforehand, perhaps getting a key to fit the lock.

There are several kinds of mendicants: Foreigners, the starving, those pretending sick, or to have been shipwrecked, those with petitions, etc.; each has his specialty. There are the thieves who break into houses; who use narcotics; those who steal with hooks; stealers of cheese; of horses, dogs, and game. Some force a lock with great skill; others can climb easily to the height of a church steeple, but are incapable of breaking through the least obstacle; some take to flight at the least noise; others enter a house full of people and things; some have great dexterity in the hands; there are those who do not hesitate to leap from the second story of a house or from a railroad train going at full speed; there are those who steal anything in their way; those who will not trouble themselves about things of little value; those who steal cattle, but would be afraid to break open the door of a hencoop. Thus each one naturally finds the method best adapted to himself. When we consider how often he repeats the same things, his reputation for dexterity is far from being wonderful. Poisoners are generally well educated; they are physicians, chemists; they have a sympathetic air, amiable address, persuasive language, which would deceive the very elect; they are often passionate women. Poisoning has been a species of voluptuousness; many have been poisoned, sometimes with little motive, and as many as 14 and 21 at one time; poisoners are pushed by cupidity, love, or unbridled lust; they are hypocritical, calm, and deceitful, protesting their innocence to the very end; they carry their secret into the grave; they rarely have accomplices. Sometimes poisoning assumes the form of an epidemic, especially with women.

Thieves are fond of showy colors, toys, chains, earrings; they are the most ignorant and credulous of all; they are cowards by nature, make intimate acquaintance at first sight, if one speaks their slang; they even fall in with foreigners, travel with them not knowing their language; Frenchmen and Germans sometimes unite. Criminals believe in dreams, omens, and unlucky days; go with prostitutes, their natural friends; associate in bands; they like the noise of large cities, it is their element; they are incapable of working steadily, are bold liars; they are the most difficult to reform, especially the women, who are courtesans in addition.

Swindlers are superstitious, clever, lustful, more capable of good or bad actions than other criminals; they are bigots and hypocrites, with a soft air, benevolent and vain, and lavish with their ill-gotten money; they are often insane or feign insanity.

Assassins affect a soft and sympathetic manner, and a calmness pervades them; they are seldom given to wine, but very much to gambling and carnal love; among themselves they are audacious, arrogant, and boast of their crimes. Their dexterity is the result of practice; one kills his victim with the very first blow; when not engaged in

^a "Le Criminel-type" (by author), Paris, 1895.

their occupation they are gay fellows, and seek especially the society of the theaters.

Idlers and vagrants are almost always of a gay and joyous humor; in prison others make clowns of themselves; they are generally sober and calm in temper and avoid serious quarrels, especially rows where blood flows; they do not desire to injure severely persons or property; their excuse is generally inability to find work, not so much on account of fatigue as of uniformity of movement in their work, which is caused by division of labor in large factories, and which they can not endure; many of them rather than labor thus expose their health and life to much more dangerous work. They are not generally passionate to the degree that would lead to crime. Their lazy life and light gaiety have caused them to invent strange trades, such as making sonorous bellows, which produce noises like that of a fight, attracting the crowd and police; another is a great colorer of pipes, or colors rabbits; another dresses flea-bites. One claimed to have 27 professions. He was bootblack, rag picker, errand runner, public crier, etc. These naturally are experts in slang.

Now and then there are criminals with genius, who invent new forms of crime. Vidocq succeeded in escaping many times, and caused many villains to fall into the hands of justice. He has traced out in his memoir a psychology of crime. Criminals are endowed with a particular kind of genius. Noscino, whom no prison in Tuscany could hold more than a month, evaded his keepers after having given them warning. Another has left a manual concerning the art of opening locks. At Sing Sing a prisoner succeeded in establishing a distillery with the remains of fruits and potatoes furnished by the prison, and concealed this for a long time. Generally, however, the criminals of genius lack either the foresight or the necessary cunning to carry their projects through to the end; at the root of their character there is a lightness that is sure to show itself. In general, their genius is more of a knavish and clever nature; they lack coherence and continuity in mental work; what they have of this is powerful, but it is intermittent.

Criminals are rare in the scientific world. Many of those accused of crime have not been proven guilty. Peculation may be more than a mere feebleness of character. Sallust and Seneca were accused of this, but without certain proofs. Cremani, a "consul" and celebrated criminalist, became a forger. Demme, a noted surgeon, was guilty of theft and poisoning. Crime is very rare among mathematicians and natural scientists. Great men, and those in high positions, are often exposed to accusations of every nature by the envy and jealousy of others.

RECIDIVATION.

The recidivists, or habitual criminals, may find nothing detestable in crime, but make it a trade like any other, or commit crime with an idea of vengeance for injustice suffered. The reformation of a recidivist is rare. Dismissed from home they carry on their trade together, going into more serious crime, as in the case of a thief who, when surprised, strikes a fatal blow. If they do not succumb in prison from tuberculosis or heart disease they find their way to the asylum. It is often observed that the asylum is for them a faint hope of healing their bad tendencies. Sometimes attacks of acute mania or melan-

cholia have a good influence, but more often after one attack of acute insanity they conserve their criminal tendencies. The better natures choose less dangerous criminal acts, as swindling, etc., but generally sink lower and lower. Some, where prison discipline is poor, become much worse by associating with others. Both sexes practice deception of every kind, as forgery, perjury, stealing and concealing stolen goods, etc. The men do not fear to rob, to set fire, to murder, when the opportunity is favorable. The women are less frequently found committing acts of this kind; they are mistrustful, lying, cunning, revengeful, lazy, and often give false names. In prison they are inclined to coarseness, boldness, defiance, resistance, refusal to work, and willful spoiling of their clothes and other effects (not uncommon with the insane). They like to stir up their fellow-prisoners to plots of the most audacious sort. Severe punishment is necessary to restrain them; they resemble much the normal insane, so that one can regard them as in the first stage of insanity. The secondarily insane, before their insanity is apparent, are often given to stealing, deceiving, forging, counterfeiting, concealing, etc. Murders are infrequent, and almost only occur when the persecutive hallucination is present. Those addicted to alcohol are generally light offenders; they are seldom thieves. Those with hereditary mental weakness are given more to crimes of unchastity. Those with acute forms of insanity as mania, melancholia, or progressive paralysis, are soon brought to the asylum. The recidivists are somewhat of a mixed class (von Hölder): (1) They consist of those who have a positive tendency to insanity or epilepsy; (2) those whose family antecedents plainly lead them to crime, and (3) those whose morality and feeling of honor through training and environment are destroyed.

Criminal phenomena and the manifestations of insanity bring nothing new; they are nothing further than distorted or diseased manifestations of mental activities, which by themselves are present in every man; but by some they develop in one or the other direction. No one is sure that his mental soundness can not be endangered through outer or inner troubles, or that he can escape inclinations which might lead to crime. Von Hölder gives the following data: In Italy the recidivists condemned by the court were in 1878 13 per cent; in 1882 they increased to 22 per cent. In France they were but 10 cent in 1826; in 1867 they had increased to 42 per cent, and in 1879 to 50 per cent.

Thus the recidivists increase in number as civilization advances. In Belgium, in 1869-1871, they reached 70 per cent. In Prussia, from 1871 to 1877, the number of condemned who had already been once in prison ranged between 77 and 80 per cent for men, and between 74 and 84 per cent for women. In Austria, from 1860 to 1864, 33 per cent were recidivists; in 1868-1871 they reached 59 per cent for men and 51 per cent for women. The influence of heredity will be seen from the number of comparatively young recidivists, as shown by the following statistics: In France, out of 1,000 recidivists, 67 had not reached the age of 16; 204 were from 16 to 21 years of age; 284 from 21 to 30; 215 from 30 to 40; 206 from 40 to 60; 20 from 60 to 70; and 4 were more than 70 years of age.

The persistence of those who continue to fall is shown from the following: The number of recidivists arrested for the first time in France is 45 per cent of the total number; second time, 20 per cent; third

time, 11 per cent; fourth time, 7 per cent; fifth time, 4 per cent; sixth time, 3 per cent; seventh time, 2 per cent; eighth time, 2 per cent; ninth time, 1 per cent; tenth and more times, 5 per cent.

The preceding facts show how this habitual backsliding is confined to a small number of persons. Out of 6,108 prisoners liberated in 1878, 2,413 (39 per cent) were taken back within two years; 27 per cent of those arrested in Paris in 1880 had been condemned four times within ten years. Some have as their sole purpose to gain an easy living in prison; sometimes they take no precautions, as they desire one or two years in prison to repair the delapidated condition of their health. On entering prison they are welcomed by their old friends. One, who by small thefts had reinstated himself for the fiftieth time, found himself in a cellular prison instead of a mere jail. He said, complainingly, "Justice has defrauded me; they will not have a chance to take me again in this country." Very few prostitutes ever reform; sometimes they go into convents, but only to ameliorate their condition. Improving the food of the prisons will not lessen the number of recidivists.

In Prussia the cellular system has not had a good influence on the recidivists; the number has increased from 60 to 70 per cent; in Belgium the increase has been 78 per cent; here the cellular system has been in force for a number of years. In Spain, out of 2,249, 1,569 were returned for the same deed; 933 were thieves, 429 murderers. In France and Sweden one-third of the recidivists are thieves and vagrants. These facts are not in harmony with some legal notions as to the morality and responsibility of criminals, leaving out of consideration those who are so by passion or occasion. It is important to observe that these kinds of crime which furnish the largest number of the recidivists are those which are noticed from infancy. In a single year in Paris 30 assassinations, 39 homicides, 3 parricides, 2 poisonings, 114 infanticides, 4,212 cases of assault and battery, 25 incendiaries, 153 violations, 80 obscene crimes, 458 thefts, 11,862 simple thefts, were committed by young people.

MORAL SENSE IN RECIDIVATION.

A certain criminal said to his comrades in prison: "If we were millionaires we would continue our trade." This perhaps is the feeling of the great majority of the habitual criminals. The moral sense is radically defective, if not incomprehensible to them. A thief of Milan said: "I do not steal; I only take from the rich that which they have too much of; and do the merchants do otherwise? Why, then, should I be accused and they left undisturbed?" Another said with open face: "I do not imitate my companions who make their misdeeds a mystery; far from that, I am proud of them; I steal, it is true, but never less than 2,000 francs; to attack so large an amount seems to me less a theft than a speculation." Another said: "If I had not stolen I could not have enjoyed myself, I could not even have lived; we are necessarily in the world; without us what need would there be of judges, lawyers, jailers? It is we who give them a living." Another said to his judge: "We are necessary; God put us in the world to punish the stingy and bad rich; we are a species of plague from God. And besides, without us what would the judges do?" Another justifies the

violence used in a robbery: "We bound them for our own safety, as the jailer does when he puts the handcuffs on us; it was their turn; to each his turn." Another, after sending a man to kill his enemy, compared his act to that of the ancient Romans who took vengeance by blood when their honor was offended.

The recidivist not only believes that he has the right to steal, murder, and throw the blame on others who do not permit him to act as he likes; but he is proud of it. An assassin who kills out of vengeance thinks he does an honorable action, if not heroic. "B," who had been given to highway robbery from his youth, and who in company with another had killed several men, complained of being sentenced to twenty years.

"Ten is sufficient, for if I killed as many at that time, I performed my duty."

"But you killed women, also?"

To this he replied: "They well merited it; they tried to escape."

The remorse that knows the conscience of a criminal is a myth. The worst men conduct themselves the best in prison, knowing that they will be better treated if they appear to have the best feelings. Thompson, out of 410 assassins, did not find a sincere case of repentance. Ferri studied 780 and found only 3.4 per cent who showed repentance or who manifested any feeling in recounting their deeds. The homicides and assassins had a smaller proportion (1.2 per cent) than the bandits, ruffians, and especially the thieves (4.1 per cent); 10 per cent showed a complete absence of remorse by their effrontery. In general more than one-third are without remorse as shown by indifference and effrontery in the acknowledgment or recital of their crimes. In the following table the large per cent of indifference, impudence, and excuse making is suggestive:

| | Department. | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|--|
| | Total. | Assassins and homicides. | Highway robbers, thieves, pickpockets. |
| | <i>Per cent.</i> | <i>Per cent.</i> | <i>Per cent.</i> |
| Those who simply confessed | 9.6 | 9.8 | 9.4 |
| Complained | 1.7 | .8 | 1.1 |
| Showed repentance | 1.7 | .4 | 3 |
| Made excuses | 18 | 26 | 8.3 |
| Appeared indifferent | 23 | 17 | 25 |
| Appeared impassive | 1.1 | 2.7 | |
| Were impudent | 10.2 | 5.1 | 19.2 |
| Number examined | 698 | 254 | 266 |

If they see the justice of their punishment, they confess their faults to benevolent persons; they feel the need of pouring out their hearts, to justify themselves before the world by reasons which men always find to defend themselves.

Although their denials are to avoid condemnation, yet they show no feeling as to an offended moral sense. Ferri, in examining 700 cases, found that 42 per cent of the great criminals (homicides, assassins, and highway robbers) and 21 per cent of the lower criminals (thieves, pickpockets, and swindlers) obstinately denied their crime. A prisoner will not infrequently protest his innocence deplore his misfor-

tunes, abandon himself, and in a few minutes afterwards in a hilarious freak will show beyond a doubt his guilt. An important fact is that those recidivists never pity their victim, but deride and calumniate him. The habitual criminal thinks that his trade is a fine thing as well as a pleasure to him. One being asked whether he ever struck anyone, said, "I am no butcher;" but to the objection that he took pocketbooks he exclaimed, "Ah, yes; but what a beautiful thing." Although some seem to repent, it is more to make profit of philanthropic illusions about themselves. Lacenaire, after his first condemnation, wrote to his friend for protection and money: "Alas! there is nothing to do but to repent; you can do a good deed and have the satisfaction of saying 'I brought one back from the evil way, for which he was not born,' for without you I would still be engaged in an infamous career." A few moments after writing these lines he committed a theft and planned an assassination. On the scaffold he said he never knew what remorse was.

Another prisoner refused wine when offered him, because he said its color reminded him of his brother whom he had killed; but he obtained wine slyly from his fellow-prisoners, and when one of them was not disposed to give him wine, he threatened them saying, "I have killed four like you and I will kill a fifth." Sometimes the remorse is only the fear of death or religious fear which takes the form of repentance. The Marquise of Brinvillers passed for a model of penitence. At the last moment she wrote to her husband: "I die an innocent woman, and it is owing to my enemies." She was a parricide and fratricide. When her confessor induced her to change the terms of this letter, she felt herself so incapable to think otherwise that she requested him to do it for her. Conducted to execution, she avowed that ideas of voluptuousness and vengeance possessed her to the present moment. Alluding to her husband she repeated "Could he live longer with people who have pursued me out of hatred?"

Lombroso calls attention especially to a case of moral metamorphosis: A man of 40 years, after twenty years in prison, had a religious hallucination and believed himself charged with a mission in honor of the Virgin, who appeared to him in his cell. This idea took away all traces of criminal tendencies and made him an apostle and philanthropist.

A criminal can quite frequently understand what is wrong, but he does not give the same weight to his bad action. One wrote after his first assassination: "I hope they will pardon me for this childishness." Another, having assassinated a man for money, on marching to the scaffold, murmured: "Make a man die for such a little thing!" The judge said to a criminal: "You will not deny that you stole a horse?" He replied: "How could you call that a theft? Would you have the leader of a band go on foot?" Some would diminish the villainy of their acts on account of their good inclinations, as in the case of the assassin, who carried on his trade in order to provide for his wife and son.

Thieves are conscious of their fault, but they consider the bankrupt more guilty than themselves—although he is often unmolested. A thief said: "There are two kinds of justice; the natural, which he himself practiced in giving to the poor part of the objects stolen by him; the artificial justice, which the social law protected, but for which he cared nothing." While the criminal has some idea of justice,

yet it is more a matter of thought than feeling owing to his passions and bad habits which choke it. A criminal, speaking of an assassination committed by himself, which fact was not known at the time, said: "That will not escape the guillotine."

Rich thieves and prostitutes seek to keep their children from following their career. From these examples it is clear that the one great lack is feeling; the idea of what one ought to do and the will power to do it are quite different, and the criminal decidedly lacks the will power. The expression, "Honesty among thieves," shows in them the idea of justice; but the use of the justice to be unjust. There is vanity back of it also; they are proud to mention it. In a meeting of thieves in London, one of their number (condemned twenty-six times), was received with great applause; he was sent out to get some money changed; not returning soon it was the sentiment of the meeting that they would kill him if he did not bring the money back; to their great joy he returned; they were proud of him. This good side of the criminal's feelings enables society to correct them. It is not intellectual teaching that brings a good result so much as a rational direction of the passions. Lombroso mentions Anderson, one of the most dangerous criminals, who was transformed into a lamb when he was employed at subduing savage bulls; but when returned to prison in chains he was a terror to all.

The division of the booty is generally done with strict justice. Some prisoners were left to themselves on an island; the leaders of two rival parties formed a code of laws which was barbarous and severe, but enforced with strictness. For instance, one had stolen a goat, and tried to get off on a fine, but the criminal, who was judge, cried: "The goat is not to be paid for with money, but with blood." Another was thought to have aided him, but he proved an alibi; he was excluded from the legislative organization of which he was a member, the tribunal not wishing any of its members to be suspected. But this kind of justice is forced and temporary.

Criminals are often very untrue to their companions and parents. A denunciation is a disgrace, if it is made to their injury; but they do not fail to denounce others; this is the cause of continual riots and vengeance among them. They inform on one another to help themselves along or to aggravate each other when they are jealous, so as not to be the only ones to suffer; they have accomplices, so that if caught they will not be the only ones condemned to death; they consider themselves in good fortune to be consulted by the police, and often display the greatest zeal to have a friend arrested, if they have to invent the facts. The chiefs of the brigands are despotic.

CRIMINAL SUGGESTION.^a

Reformation from prison life in the majority of cases would seem to be a myth. Lacenaire, the celebrated criminal, has said that a young man in prison, on hearing of the adventures of the others, begins to regret that he was not a greater criminal himself.

The young man surrounded for a long time with murderers, poisoners, thieves, violators, and pederasts, leaves the prison with a blunted

^a For further data, see Senate Doc. No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

if not extinguished moral conscience; for it must be remembered that the company is not always so repulsive, as many criminals have both winning ways and pleasant manners.

SUGGESTION FROM THE PRESS.

This indirect suggestion is as certain as the direct, which comes from surroundings, often from infancy. Aubry gives several cases in illustration:

A woman of Geneva, Switzerland, in 1885 killed her four children, then tried to commit suicide. In her autobiography were these words: "As a woman did it, which was in the newspaper."

In 1881 a lad of 15 years stole from his patron; when the money was spent he found a child and stabbed it in the abdomen, and as he cut its throat he said: "I have often read novels, and in one of them I found the description of a scene parallel to this which I have executed."

A young man of 23 years commenced in September of 1880 to steal from his patron; in November he bought a revolver; in June, on the 17th, at about half past 9 in the evening, he walked by a group of several persons without speaking to them; scarcely had he passed when he thought he heard sneering and hallooing, in which he could distinguish, "Raise it;" he turned and fired five times without saying a word, wounding two. A little farther on he saw another individual sitting on a bank, noticed that he was alone, passed him four or five steps, and then turned and fired; his victim died soon afterwards. Such are the facts of his crime.

In his autobiography was the following: "The consequences of crime are advantageous to society. There is a certain number of the population (and they are the most numerous) who buy newspapers simply to read the exceptional occurrences. If we suppress crime there are no more buyers, and consequently no more employed to work at the rag trade. I do not wish to lose my liberty for trifles. I have always had horror of imprisonment, and I much prefer capital punishment. Lacenaire is a splendid man, a powerful individuality; his work leads to enormous deductions. Shall I finish as Lacenaire? My conscience answers, 'possibly.' Poet, thief, assassin, a singular gradation; but I have gone half way, it would be stupid to arrest a career which promises such good results."

This man was deficient in moral education. Intelligent as he was proud and ambitious, he had experienced illusions; at one time he had attempted suicide; later, under the influence of bad reading, he had debased his judgment, and composed a morality for his own use, and thus became a subject of undoubted perversity.

Tropman, the celebrated criminal, who killed a family with poison and a pickax, confessed that the cause of his demoralization was the reading of novels. By living in this imaginary world he developed a strong passion for heroes of the prison who recover honesty with the spoils of their victims and die administrators of some charity. The reading about crime and the seeing it illustrated in newspapers are of course not the only elements that render one apt to commit crime, but still these are of great importance as factors. If this happens in the case of those of relatively sound mind, the influence is still worse on the weak-minded, insane, and the cranks. On November 4, 1825, a woman

laid her child on its back across the bed; with one hand she seized its head, which hung over the part of the bed, and with the other hand she sawed its neck so quickly that the child had no time to utter a cry. This was noised about in all Paris. A few days after a mother of four children came to the doctor who had directed the consultation in regard to the murderer and said: "I am in most terrible despair since hearing of this murder. I am tormented by the devil to kill the youngest of my children. I fear I can not resist it. Will you recommend me to Dr. Esquirol, that he may admit me into his hospital?" It was done, and she recovered. Another woman, who had recently given birth to a child, having heard of this same murder was taken with a monomania for homicide. She struggled against it; finally she asked her husband to have her shut up. Two other cases are positively known to have been caused or occasioned by the knowledge of this one murder. It is at first with repulsion that one hears of the details of crime, but with repetition there gradually comes an indifference to the whole matter. Then one may begin to look complacently upon the crime. The publication of these cruel details tends to harden the finer sensibilities in most persons, and in many weak ones can lead to overt acts. As before referred to, it is just those persons, numerous in every community, who, morally weak or on the borders of insanity, or insane, or something eccentric, are affected most by the detailed publication of crime in popular form, as is common in the newspapers.

VITRIOL OR REVOLVER.

Suggestion here is sufficiently frequent. A woman employs the vitriol to satisfy her vengeance. The details are published in the newspapers; another woman in like situation finds this method convenient. Such cases are where the woman wishes to disfigure, but not to kill.

The classical cases are those of seduction and abandonment. A young man makes the acquaintance of a young girl of the lower classes; he promises marriage, but time passes and his passion goes out. Often the social customs do not permit marriage with one of a lower class; the young man marries another; a natural feminine jealousy springs up; first to kill him, but that requires courage, and, besides, she does not really hate him, but she has heard about vitriolizing; this would be convenient. She reads of a case in the newspaper; there was a gracious acquittal. Besides, if she disfigures her former friend, his present wife will not like it; perhaps would not wish to have anything more to do with him; then he would return to her. This seems to her a capital thing to do. She may get renown for it also; the newspapers like to print racy articles.

REVOLVER.

Those who use the revolver, although more dangerous, are not perhaps of so mean or low a nature as those who employ vitriol; the latter class move in a lower grade of society. A married woman in the higher society was indignant at odious stories circulated about her life when she was a young girl; a woman and a man were the parties who were talking thus about her. First, she tried to take justice into her own hands; then she had the man brought before the court for false testimony; he was condemned for two years; but he appealed, the case was delayed; in departing from the court, as he went out, she dis-

charged six balls; he was taken to the hospital and died; the journals gave columns daily to the case, giving personal details as to the accused; she was acquitted with the applause of the crowd and the journals. In a few days the following conversation took place between another man and his wife: "If you were one of the jury, what would you have done?" "I would have acquitted her," answered the husband. Then the wife began to sob. "Why do you cry?" asked the husband. "Ah," with exultation she said, "I am glad you are a man of soul." This same woman, later on, was followed by an architect of note; becoming exasperated by his importunities and declarations of love, she finally shot him. The cause was the making a heroine out of the first woman by the public and press.

POISONING.

The crime of poisoning came to France from Italy. Poisoning was done with a bouquet, with a pair of gloves, with a letter, and even with a torch; Pope Clement VII was killed with a candle; in the second half of the reign of Louis XIV this form of crime was prevalent; the striking thing was that the great majority of cases were among the nobility. Poisoning is now on the decline, as indicated in the following table, given by Aubry: From 1825 to 1830 there were 150 cases; 1830-1835, 145; 1835-1840, 221; 1840-1845, 250; 1845-1850, 259; 1850-1855, 294; 1855-1860, 281; 1860-1865, 181; 1865-1870, 165; 1870-1875, 99; 1875-1880, 78. For the last twenty-five years the decrease is a marked one, owing to new processes and to the progress of science in finding the least traces of toxical substances in the organism; thus poisoning tends to disappear while general criminality seems to increase. This period coincides with the epoch when chemical discoveries began.

CRIMES OF HYPNOTIZERS.

Almost all the crimes committed by hypnotizers on those hypnotized are violations or outrages of modesty. In the lethargic or cataleptic state the subject is easily influenced; here also somnambulism offers some dangers. The affective sentiments toward the hypnotizer are strongly manifested in many cases; the subject, isolated from the entire world, only sees the hypnotizer. It is easy to comprehend the danger to one in a mental state like this. At this point the actions of a person might seem voluntary, and so not constitute a crime, but the hypnotizer or magnetizer who profits in the somnambulism from similar dispositions of mind is guilty of the crime of violation. In the state of lethargy one does not remember on awaking what transpired in this stage of the sleep, or the recollection is so confused that the testimony can not be trusted. There is also a lucid lethargy, a still less degree of hypnosis. This state is important when the question of simulation arises, but in this state the recollection can generally be trusted. In some cases of violation the victim passes from lucid lethargy to complete lethargy; certain things are remembered, while others are confused or forgotten.

Somnambulism can serve for the committing of a voluntary abduction one might say; the individual is plunged into lethargy, and his totally unconscious state serves to carry him away. Certain magnetizers of India were accustomed to employ this means to rob children.

When there is a bodily and mental passivity, it almost always takes place in the lethargic state. A dishonest hypnotizer, owing to the remembrance of the facts of real life in the somnambulistic state, can gain knowledge from his subject that he could not if his subject were in his ordinary state. Giraud, Teulon, and Liébeault give cases of this kind. Gilles de la Tourette speaks of not always receiving an answer to every question, but some even falsify to cut short the importunity of the suggestion. As to offenses against morals, including confidences and confessions, there is much doubt; and according to Gilles de la Tourette there need be no great apprehensions from the misuse of hypnotism in such cases, for the cases of this nature that are cited are simply and purely experimental. In actual life, the difficulties are so great that a crime in the line of confidences or confessions would soon be detected; the hypnotizer also would be easily found out. Also, in post-hypnotic states, where murder can be committed that was suggested during the hypnotic condition, the magnetizer or hypnotizer would soon be detected. Here is a supposed case given by Charcot: "A" desires to take revenge on "B." "A" has a patient whom he can put into the somnambulistic condition. He suggests to his subject to go and kill "B," commanding him at the same time not to recall anything in the second hypnosis. Experimentally this is realized, but the conditions are not the same in actual life, for the magnetizer would be sure to be found out. What does "A" do? At the hour suggested, while in hypnotic state, the patient now in his natural or ordinary state, has a thought (unknown to him until present time) that he must kill "B." He arms himself and does it, no matter where he finds him. Of course, he is totally unaware that any such order was given him in the hypnotic condition. The patient is, of course, arrested. What does he say? Nothing, or rather he tries to exculpate himself. To do it, he must invent a story out of whole cloth; but this would soon fall to pieces. It would not be long before he would be shown to be a neuropathic person, or hysterical, or easily hypnotizable; the patient would soon suspect that his magnetizer had suggested this to him, and would have no reason to keep silent as to a man who had taken such advantage of him. "A" would be sure to be caught. It would be much safer for a magnetizer to do the murdering himself. But there are dangers for the honest and upright hypnotizer; there are cases where a hysterical person accuses the magnetizer of abusing her or violating her. This comes from pure imagination, or malice, or some ulterior purpose, for the character of those hypnotized is not always beyond question, and it is not difficult to see how an honest hypnotizer might be made to suffer severely. Sometimes women of doubtful reputation go to be hypnotized for the very purpose of blackmail and scandal, and it is a legal platitude that a jury will believe a woman's story where she claims her virtue is at stake much easier than the testimony of a man. Violations are possible both in the lethargic and somnambulistic states. In both states forgetfulness of what passed during the sleep occurs on waking up. Nevertheless, if the crime is committed in the somnambulistic state the memory of it can be recalled at the time of a second hypnotization. The criminal can make use of both states. The evidence of violation in either of these states is circumstantial. After examining the phys-

ical state of the plaintiff, and finding that she is hysterical, the expert should now see if she is hypnotizable; and, if easily so, whether a complete insensibility can be obtained. In the case of simulators who can be hypnotized, one must see if their sleep is deep enough to permit a crime. Many hypnotizations are generally necessary. The consciousness of the violation can exist at the time, and also the memory of it after awaking; the victim can will to cry and yet be unable to. The simulators can make the claim that in their sleep they willed resistance, but could not carry it out. They are mostly hysterical persons. At this stage convulsive attacks are the great criterion of the neurosis.

Brouardel says that, however good the ability to simulate, it is impossible when one provokes the contraction of the sterno-mastoid muscle, or of a group of muscles enervated by the same nerve, or when the experiment of colors in vision is tried. Violation in the somnambulistic state may take place with or without violence. There are states analogue to the hypnotic, caused by a wound on the head or natural somnambulism. Hysteria dominates in most of such cases; natural somnambulism is a transformation. Suggestion can take place in hysterical somnambulism as well as in hypnotic, but crimes are more frequent in the latter state. Pressure over the hysterical zone can cause one to sleep, and commit a crime. Sometimes there is unconsciousness of the crime, or want of resistance owing to intellectual feebleness. This is also true in case of idiots or imbeciles who are brutally treated by those who are paid to protect them. As to moral responsibility, it must be borne in mind that artificially caused somnambulism produces extreme cases, where the act suggested is imposed with irresistible force; that nothing is done in profound sleep which may not have its analogue in the waking state; that hypnotic sleep exaggerates physiological automatism, it does not create it; that between the fatal suggestion and the absolute voluntary determination all degrees may exist; that to analyze all the suggestive elements which intervene (in our absence) in the acts which we believe issue from our initiative, is impossible. Liégeois, professor of law at Nancy, France, hypnotized a woman, and by suggestion (with false firearms) caused her to shoot another person; being asked immediately why she did it, she confessed, with entire indifference, she had killed him because he did not please her. When asked if it was not Liégeois who had suggested the idea to her, she answered, no; she did it spontaneously; she is "alone guilty."

Many profound sleepers are susceptible to post-hypnotic suggestions which have been known to have taken place not only many days and weeks after they were suggested, but even as long as years. False testimony through suggestion is sufficiently frequent, as in the case of a child in court who through fear testifies falsely, because questions are so put as to threaten the child if the desired answer is not given.

Bernheim suggests these precautions:

(1) The testimony of false accusers is not so persistent in memory; the impression is not so continuous; recollection is latent or obscure; (2) the magistrate should ask questions without pressing the witness or indicating his own opinion; one should not resort to suggestion in order to obtain confessions, as he may suggest the confession he desires; (3) testimony can be suggested by one witness making affirma-

tions with force and conviction and recounting the facts in the presence of other witnesses; for some are influenced, accept what is said, and form an image of the event through imitation. For this reason each witness should be questioned alone, and it should be certain that in their previous conversations no reciprocal suggestion has taken place. The agreement of several witnesses is not always an argument in favor of the truth, even when witnesses are honest, because in this case there can be unconscious suggestions. Nothing is more false than the saying, "*Vox populi, vox Dei*;" (4) The enlightened magistrate can measure the suggestibility of a suspected witness by skillful questions, can appear to accept what the witness says, insist on the incidents and add to them, suggesting details, which will betray the suggestibility of the witness if he confirms these details. He says, for example: "You said when 'X' took your money, you let a piece fall, and picked it up again. You remember the circumstance?" If the accuser falls into the trap and confirms the suggestion, the question is by this fact determine; (5) a medical examination, in the majority of cases, can be determined if one has to do with a suggestible person; one generally can cause catalepsy by simple affirmation, and in some persons hallucinations can be produced. Human imagination is open to good and bad impressions; not all criminals are criminals; not all falsehoods, falsehoods; there are those who mystify not only others but themselves without knowing it.

SUGGESTIBLE PERSONS.

Certain suggestible persons falsify in good faith. It is easy to create fictitious remembrances, which may be called retroactive hallucinations, or false testimony. I say to one in his natural sleep:

(Cases from Bernheim.) "I know why you do not sleep now; your neighbor coughs and sings, opens the window, fixes the fire; all the patients complain."

I awake this person a few moments afterward. He rubs his eyes; thinks he awoke spontaneously; remembers nothing. Then I say:

"You sleep, then, all the day?"

"No," he answers, "but I can not sleep in the night."

"Why?"

"On account of patient in bed No. 6. He was probably sick. He coughed, sang as if in delirium. I don't know what possessed him; he went to open the window."

"Is it true? You must have dreamed."

"All the patients heard him; they can tell you."

Then his imagination was worked upon, and new souvenirs were created. "But the other patients have not complained. What did No. 4 say to him?"

"Four said to close the window, and not to make a noise."

"Then what happened?"

"No. 4 got up and went to him, and they struck one another."

"And what did the sister do?"

"She could not silence them."

"Did the director come?"

"He came in a blue dressing gown, and said he would put them both out to-day."

Operator said: "That is not true; you dreamed it."

Patient answered: "I did not dream it, because I was awake."

Another experiment:

(Bernheim.) I suggested to one subject in the hypnotic state that my colleague was a photographer, and had come at 4 o'clock the day before to take his photograph, and that he (subject) had paid 2 francs. On awakening the subject was convinced; but what is to be noted is that three other patients, who were awake at the time, affirmed they were present and saw my colleague take the photograph. I said it was not so, but their conviction remained. By questions it was easy to amplify the suggestion by their autosuggestion from a fictitious memory.

Another case, very suggestible and hypnotizable. Operator says: "Henritte, I met you yesterday at Stanislas Place. You were in singular circumstances. What happened when I saw you?"

Operator repeats the question and looks at her. Her face changes; she reflects, turns red, and says: "I dare not say."

"You must tell me."

"I was struck," she says in a low voice.

"By whom?"

"By a workman."

"Why?"

Silence. She is ashamed and does not wish to confess.

"Come, tell me."

She whispers in operator's ear: "I did not wish to go with him."

Operator looked at her severely. "Henritte, you are falsifying. Why did he strike you?"

She became pale, confused, and, covering up her face, began to cry.

"Tell me what you did yesterday."

"I wanted to steal his watch."

"And then?"

"I was led to the police station."

The poor girl was overcome with shame. Operator effaced the remembrance by saying:

"You will not remember it any more."

The retroactive hallucination was extinguished. Since criminals are easily suggestible, such experiments are not without instruction. Thus take the following case:

A young woman of the best society and of high morality, fond of her husband and children, was accustomed to receive visits from a young man, a friend of the family. One day she was found in an isolated pavilion of her garden, naked, and dead from the effects of a bullet wound; the body had been outraged. The young man had fainted at her side, wounded by a pistol. Coming to, he narrated that the young woman being desperately in love had given herself to him on condition that they both should not survive her dishonor. He had sworn to kill her and kill himself afterwards.

Is this account true? The young man impressed everyone with frankness; most persons considered it an act of foolish love. It is well known how passion can mislead the most honest natures. According to the young man the crime was planned immediately before its execution, but at this time also the poor woman wrote a calm and serene letter to one of her family; she spoke of her household affairs, her children, and the young man in a simple and natural way, which indicated a tranquil spirit. This would have been hardly possible had

she been conscious of the events soon to follow. She was an exemplary woman; modest, good, timid, affectionate, and never passionate. She was, however suggestible. One day fixing her eyes upon a silver spoon, she fell into a hypnotic state. She did not like Chambige; she was afraid of him. But how shall it be explained? It might be said that Chambige was a low assassin, who, after having cowardly violated and assassinated a woman, had invented this story to pose as a hero in a love tragedy. But the facts do not bear this interpretation out. Chambige impressed his comrades as superior; he had little moral sense; he had a sensual thirst, and drank from all sources without scruple. But he had the frankness of his convictions; he produced this impression before the jury, but as a man without heart and without prejudice, and not an impostor, violator, or murderer.

Explanation (Bernheim): Chambige sees Madame Grille; he desires to have her; she does not love him, but still is dominated and fascinated by him. She had a vague fear of him. It is easy to understand how by his allurements and declarations she could fall into a hypnotic state, as in the case of the spoon, and loose her personality. Chambige, working upon her facile imagination, could impose another consciousness, suggest a sexual excitation which she could not resist. Chambige could do all this, thinking that she loved him truly, without knowing anything at all about hypnotism. Her normal state did not love him, but her subconscious state did. Returning to her normal consciousness, Madame Grille would not remember anything. Thus on the morning of the crime the victim wrote her letter in the greatest of tranquillity; an instant afterwards Chambige could have suggested to go to the pavilion; then came a foolish passion, an irresistible excitation. If the poor woman had made him promise to kill her after her seduction to save her from dishonor, it would be the moral sense surviving in her hypnotic state, as an old hereditary feeling or by education, which could not be put down; her normal conscience could be dominated but not extinguished in the somnambulistic state; but the passion suggested overcomes it for the time. She is not herself. That which characterizes somnambulism is not sleep; there is a somnambulism awake; consciousness exists, but it is another state of consciousness in which the faculties of reason are lessened or absent; the faculties of imagination, the idiodynamic automatism constructs the scene. The subject is not himself.

Case (Bernheim): A young lady of good family, very intelligent, of sweet and affectionate character, was hypnotized by a young physician for hysterical crises. Each time she passed into somnambulism; during those attacks she confessed her love which she had for him (she had married contrary to her will). The physician became her lover during this somnambulistic state. In her normal state she remembered nothing. Becoming pregnant, she did not suspect it, not having had any relation with her husband for a year. When she finally discovered the real nature of her trouble, she became anxious, lost her head, and at parturition her insanity was complete. Later on she recovered, but never suspected her physician. These facts in this case show now the somnambulistic state, natural or provoked, modifies the passions, instincts, and character, and diminishes resistance to evil temptations.

We give another case of double personality related before the Academy of Sciences at Paris: A lawyer, 33 years of age, was hysterical and very hypnotizable. A noise, a whistle, or reflection of a looking

glass upon his eyes could put him into a hypnotic sleep. One day he was trying a case; the judge fixed his eyes upon him; he stopped short and slept. In these conditions he presented a double personality; he forgot his past existence and entered into another condition; he went and came, traveled, made visits, and bought things. When suddenly he returned to his first condition he was wholly ignorant of what had passed in his other state. One day, after an altercation with his brother-in-law, he had an attack which made his second personality appear; he went to visit his uncle, broke many objects, tore his books and manuscripts, contracted debts, and was taken before the court for swindling and condemned. All his recollections, effaced in the normal state, returned in the somnambulistic state.

Such cases are perhaps more frequent than we suppose, because they are not recognized as a pathological anomaly, when anæsthesia is complete. Anæsthesia, when incomplete, makes the diagnosis difficult, as the idea of somnambulism does not come to the mind. We all know persons whose lives are full of inconsequences and contradictions; their conduct is irreproachable; their character is timid, they are reserved in their manners, sensible in their actions, etc. Then from time to time the disposition is modified; they become capricious, extravagant, go against their instincts, and commit reprehensible acts; after a time the normal state reappears. All degrees can exist, from a simple change of disposition (perceptible only to intimate friends) to the complete transformation of the moral being. This transformation can be a mental disease, as periodic melancholia, intermittent dipsomania, or transitory insanity. All mental diseases are in reality states of modified consciousness. The extreme degrees only attract our attention; the light degrees we attribute to capriciousness or a sickly state of feeling.

It is clear how a suggestion realizes psychical modifications; gayety and sadness are alternately produced, there is a calm, then a passionate disposition, a spirit of obedience or the opposite, an affection or a hatred. These facts are not without importance to the magistrate, the moralist, and the philosopher. In the broad sense of the word suggestion may play a rôle in our acts, good or bad.

The greatest criminals are not always the most guilty. Dr. Laurent gives a case of complicity in theft. where hypnotization is negative in results as to gaining a confession from the accused; for the present state of our knowledge does not permit us to know whether the person hypnotized obeys his conscience or his will, which holds him under its dependence.

The following conversation took place while the accused was in the hypnotic state:

L. "You are accused of complicity in theft." "I am innocent."

L. "You knew, however, that the horse and carriage had been stolen." "No, no," said patient with energy, "I didn't know anything about it."

L. "You knew it." "I swear to you I did not."

L. "I tell you you did know it." "No," said the patient more softly.

L. "I assure you that you knew it; you knew it." "Yes; I knew it."

L. "Is it certain that you knew it?" "I knew it."

L. "You did not know that the carriage had been stolen." "Yes; I knew it."

L. "No; I tell you; you did not know anything about it."

"No; I did not know anything about it."

Case of theft (Krafft-Ebing): The patient was sad and quiet; her head was supported on her her arms; she did not respond always when spoken to. The eyes were vague, as in a dream, not perceiving objects or persons near by. The experimenter sat opposite her and looked at her. Suddenly the patient took a special physiognomical expression. She heard a noise of a watch placed in the pocket of the physician; she approached the physician with adroitness, unhooked the watch, and hid it in a hole in her armchair. Likewise she took four other watches from the other physicians and hid them in a flowerpot; then she took a book to read, and kept on knitting. Krafft-Ebing produces in her the state of of autohypnosis. She did not react to the different excitations of the sense organs, except that some measures of a song played threw her into catalepsy. When one of the physicians jingled some money, she sought the pieces with avidity, and put them into her pocket. The same effect was produced when keys were shaken; not being permitted to take them, she grasped at them, struck the person who had the keys, gained possession of them, and hid them in a pan. Then she took up her book to read. The objects were retaken by their owners. When transformed into the normal state, she knew nothing of what occurred. On the next day, regarding a brilliant watch, she passed into the experimental-hypnotic state, and the phenomena characteristic of the continuation of the autohypnotic state, in which she was the day before, were repeated. She sought for the things hid and became agitated. In passing the hand in front of the patient, the experimental-hypnotic state was produced; she became tranquil and apathetic. In this state, she perceived the watch, but made no effort to take possession of it. In her natural state she was not abnormal in any way.

SOME CONCLUSIONS AS TO CRIMINAL MAN.^a

The following statements as to the criminal are not based upon experimental research so much as upon the experience of those who have studied criminals directly or who have had practical control of large numbers in prisons or reformatories:

1. The prison should be a reformatory and the reformatory a school. The principal object of both should be to teach good mental, moral, and physical habits. Both should be distinctly educational.

2. It is detrimental, financially, as well as socially and morally, to release prisoners when there is probability of their returning to crime; for in this case the convict is much less expensive than the ex-convict.

3. The determinate sentence permits many prisoners to be released who are morally certain to return to crime. The indeterminate sentence is the best method of affording the prisoner an opportunity to reform without exposing society to unnecessary dangers.

4. The ground for the imprisonment of the criminal is, first of all, because he is dangerous to society. This principle avoids the uncertainty that may rest upon the decision as to the degree of freedom of will; for upon this last principle some of the most brutal crimes would receive a light punishment. If a tiger is in the street, the main question is not the degree of his freedom of will or guilt. Every man

^a From "Criminology" (by writer).

who is dangerous to property or life, whether insane, criminal, or feeble minded, should be confined, but not necessarily punished.

5. The publication in the newspapers of criminal details and photographs is a positive evil to society, on account of the law of imitation; and, in addition, it makes the criminal proud of his record, and develops the morbid curiosity of the people; and it is especially the mentally and morally weak who are affected.

6. It is admitted by some of the most intelligent criminals, and by prison officers in general, that the criminal is a fool; for he is opposing himself to the best, the largest, and the strongest portion of society, and is almost sure to fail.

MAN FROM SCIENTIFIC POINT OF VIEW.

Looking at man from a scientific point of view, he exceeds all others in criminality; he kills not only his own species, which the animals rarely do, but beings of all other species with impunity; those which it is not an advantage to kill he subjects to slavery. The egotism of the human species surpasses that of all others. The basis of this egotism is a combination of psychic and physical force, not moral force.

At present the bloody idea of war still remains in the whole human race. Modern Europe, where the highest civilization exists, has at least 12,000,000 men trained for war, while Rome, with her vast empire, had only 300,000 legionaries; and this is the state of the world which, at present, is in its commercial glory, and yet, in the face of this, it is claimed that commerce and war are antagonists; but it is said that war has the advantage of purging the race. To accomplish this, however, cholera is much more effective, for the lower strata are preeminently the sufferers, while in war much of the best blood of a nation is sacrificed. The savage instinct of murder is still deeply rooted. War from the natural-history point of view is universal murder, an extension and development of universal homicide. In primitive times it was terrible in character, exceeding the ferocity of the wildest beasts; in the next stage of development one did not eat his enemy, but mutilated and tortured him, and modern civilized war is the same in essence, though different in form, for inventive genius is at present exerting itself to its utmost to discover how to kill and mutilate the enemy at great distances, and, to the disgrace of the nineteenth century humanity, it seems to have succeeded. And, while we look with horror upon the cannibal, the words of Montaigne are not inapplicable when he says that "it is more barbarous to kill a live man than to roast and eat a dead one."

ALCOHOLISM.

Alcoholism may be considered briefly, first, in its general bearings, and, second, as a form of insanity. The relation between alcoholism, crime, pauperism, and charity is most intimate. For example, a certain young criminal, who tried to kill an aged woman, without provocation, said that when he was 6 years of age his father used to return home drunk, striking his mother and throwing sticks of wood at him. He stood it for a while, but afterwards left home, and though not a thief was compelled to steal for a living: was sent to a juvenile asylum, and, after leaving, went among farmers to live under their care, being kindly

treated by a very few, whipped, and otherwise roughly treated by many. Remaining a month or so with different farmers, he finally developed into a tramp, and leaving all farmers wandered two years, stealing, eating, and sleeping wherever he could. Thus alcohol gave the initiatory to thieving. Charity endeavored to counteract these effects (result of six years of unfavorable surroundings) in two years, but the evil forces acquired by early treatment had gained too strong a foothold, and the following stages were tramping, pauperism, and crime. Such cases are typical, and almost wholly the result of evil surroundings, for which society is culpable, and for which she suffers dearly, both morally and financially. The alcoholic may be a good workman when sober, but from irregularity he loses his position and gradually becomes a pauper. A sad fact in connection with alcoholism is that often the kindest and most genial natures are for this very reason ruined through the unintentional influence of friends, for they are unable to resist the so-called feeling of good-fellowship when drinking together. From the ethical point of view it is questionable whether one has the right to take the chances of causing another to fall. It is better to forego the physical, intellectual, or social pleasure of indulging in any luxury or nonnecessity than to aid in the physical, moral, or social ruin of a fellow-being.

The relation of ethics to all these forms of abnormal humanity is as direct as it is diversified. It is ethically questionable whether it is right to give to beggars; for by so doing we encourage them by virtually paying them to beg, and if not already paupers they can be made so by a mistaken philanthropy. It is a common saying and practice of Americans traveling in Europe to give every beggar "a cent to get rid of him." This, of course, has just the opposite effect.

All these abnormal forms of humanity are different degrees of evil or wrong, the highest of which is crime. They are all links of one chain. This chain is that which we denote by the words evil, bad, unjust, wrong, etc.

These forms, to wit, criminality, alcoholism, pauperism, etc., may all be considered under the head of "charitological." Thus the different institutions, such as prisons, insane asylums, inebriate and orphan asylums, institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, and defectives; hospitals, dispensaries, relief for the poor in any form; church missions, and different forms of philanthropical work are, of course, charitable in their purpose. The difference between these institutions is one of degree, as an examination of the inmates would soon show. The pauper may be or may have been a criminal or insane or alcoholic, or the criminal may be or may have been a pauper or insane or alcoholic, and so on.

The close relation of alcoholism to insanity is shown by the statement of a specialist (Krafft-Ebing) that all forms of insanity, from melancholia to imbecility, are found in alcoholism. It is artificial; it begins with a slight maniacal excitation; thoughts flow lucidly, the quiet becomes loquacious, the modest bold; there is need of muscular action; the emotions are manifest in laughing, singing, and dancing. Now the æsthetical ideas and moral impulses are lost control of, the weak side of the individual is manifested, his secrets revealed; he is dogmatic, cruel, cynical, dangerous; he insists that he is not drunk, just as the insane insists on his sanity. Then his mind becomes weak, his consciousness dim, illusions arise; he stammers, staggers, and like a paralytic his movements are uncertain.

The principal character of these mental disturbances consists in a moral and intellectual weakness; ideas become lax as to honor and decorum. There is a disregard of the duties of family and citizenship. Irritability is a concomitant; the slightest thing causes suspicion and anger which is uncontrollable. There is a weakness of will to carry out good resolutions, and a consciousness of this leads some to request to be placed in an asylum, for they are morally certain in advance that they can not resist temptation. Thus one has been known to have his daughter carry his wages home, as he could not pass a saloon on the way without going in if he had any money with him. Now it is a weakness of memory, a difficulty in the chain of thought and a weak perception, until imbecility is reached.

There may be disturbances in brain circulation, causing restless sleep, anxious dreams, confusion, dizziness, headache. Such circulatory disturbances in the sense organs can give rise to hallucinations. There is a trembling in hands, face, lips, and tongue. In short, there is a gradual mental and bodily degeneration.

From the medical point of view, a cure is generally doubtful, for in private life total abstinence is impossible. The patient must be placed in an insane asylum, or better, in a hospital for inebriates, where total abstinence can be enforced. Patients with delirium tremens especially need the most careful hospital treatment. The principal directions are conservation of strength and cerebral quiet, strong unirritating diet, and mild laxatives, etc. Such in general is considered to be the best medical treatment. A certain French specialist (Magnan) says that a dipsomaniac is insane to drink; but the drunkard is insane after he has drunk.

VIEWS OF DR. A. BAER ON DRUNKENNESS.

The simplest things are not the most simple when studied. The good and sincere total-abstinence advocate has a high moral aim in view, and shows his loyalty by his sacrificial spirit, and thinks his case so clear and simple that he never doubts it.

To insist on total abstinence from wine in France and beer in Germany is like objecting to the use of coffee and tea in England or America. The question of total abstinence is manifestly a local one; it is relative to the country, or even State, city, or town. To insist that drinking is either right or wrong in the absolute sense is an attempt to make the relative absolute, which is a contradiction. There are two distinct questions, the purely ethical and the purely scientific; and while they are separated for convenience, they are in reality together, for in the end the facts decide the "ought." The practical ethical question seems to turn on this point: To what extent the use of a thing should be prohibited when it is abused. Many ethical difficulties are not between good and evil, but between two evils, as to which is the lesser. Yet it must be admitted that total abstinence is the safest course.

It will be interesting to follow one of the recent European investigators, Dr. A. Baer,^a of the imperial board of health, and chief prison physician at Berlin.

In the past, wine was used almost wholly by the well-to-do classes,

^aDie Trunksucht und ihre Abwehr, von Dr. A. Baer. Wien und Leipzig, 1890.

and beer was of such a nature that harm was out of the question. Excessive use of alcohol first began with the art of distillation, and with the obtaining of strong concentrated whisky from corn, potatoes, and the like. With the universalizing of the use of whisky, a series of phenomena have appeared, which are designated by the word "alcoholism."

The climate is an important factor. Drunkenness is more frequent in cold than in warm countries, and is more brutal and injurious in its effect as we go north. Yet this is not always true, for within the last ten years alcoholism has greatly decreased in Sweden, and increased in southern France and northern Italy. In tropical regions it is at present spreading fast, and with great injury, especially in newly discovered lands. The accustoming one's self to the use of alcohol causes, sooner or later, a feeling of need for it; alcoholism is not, therefore, an inborn instinctive need, but an acquired one. Experience teaches that the longer this vice exists in a nation the greater the vice becomes. Persons who misuse alcoholic drinks, especially whisky, often become sick and die sooner than the moderate drinkers and nondrinkers. When alcohol is taken habitually, and when misused, it injures the whole constitution; all tissues and organs, and especially the blood, suffer sooner or later a pathological change, with which susceptibility to disease is increased. Alcohol intoxication not only calls out diseases and disturbances that the nondrinker does not have, but it gives rise to a greater morbidity. It is an old experience that in epidemics of cholera, dysentery, and smallpox, drinkers are attacked in larger numbers, and with greater intensity, than nondrinkers. The bad constitution of the blood, the weakness of the changed heart-muscles, the sunken energy of the nervous functions, and the frequent accompanying disease of the brain, give a bad course to every disease, and a high mortality. The greater mortality of drinkers, as compared with nondrinkers, is shown by the figures of the "United Kingdom Temperance and General Provident Association," an insurance company founded since 1847:

| Year. | Total abstainers. | | General division. | |
|-----------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | Deaths expected. | Actual deaths. | Deaths expected. | Actual deaths. |
| 1866-1870 | 549 | 411 | 1,008 | 944 |
| 1871-1875 | 723 | 511 | 1,268 | 1,330 |
| 1876-1880 | 993 | 651 | 1,185 | 1,490 |
| 1881-1885 | 1,179 | 835 | 1,670 | 1,530 |
| 1886-1887 | 553 | 390 | 713 | 700 |
| Total | 3,937 | 2,798 | 6,144 | 5,984 |

In the "Total abstainers' division," 71 per cent of the expected deaths occurred; in the "General division," 97 per cent. Other companies give similar figures.

Sweden, which, up to recent times, was considered the most drunken land, owed this state of things principally to the excess of small saloons and to a very small tax on whisky. The great decrease in the number of these saloons, in connection with an increase of the whisky tax and with a temperance movement, has lessened drunkenness to a great extent. As the use of whisky decreased, the number of sick and dead

from alcoholism lessened also. In Norway, also, a bad legislation had a similar effect in spreading drunkenness. With the decrease of consumption of whisky, that of beer increased; and no land has shown more improvement through the decrease of drunkenness than Norway. In Russia the alcohol consumption is great in certain parts, but in Russia as a whole it is not so considerable as one would expect from the amount of alcoholism. The results of the abuse of alcohol are in a great measure due to the climate and the social condition of the masses. Besides the raw climate, there is an insufficient nourishment, almost wholly vegetable, which drives to whisky; this is not taken in small quantities, and regularly, as in other nations, but seldom, and in large quantities, on holidays (ninety-six yearly), in family celebrations, in market days. Recently alcoholism has decreased. In Holland, with its wet, foggy climate and great number of seaports, there has always been a large consumption of alcohol, increased by the exceedingly large number of licensed places, and especially from the fact that whisky is sold in many kinds of business (baker's, hairdresser's, etc.); as a consequence, there is a great increase in insanity through dipsomania and delirium tremens. In France, in former centuries, alcoholism was hardly known so long as wine was the alcoholic drink. But by the great exportation of wine, and by the recent appearance of oidium and phylloxera, and a like alcohol production from turnips, corn, meal, and potatoes, the alcohol consumption has gradually increased, and its consequent misuse has followed. The consumption of alcohol has more than trebled within fifty-five years. Where wine is least used there is the greatest consumption of whisky. The number of suicides is directly proportional to the increase in alcohol consumption. The number of fatal accidents due to alcohol has shown a constant increase.

In Italy the consumption of alcohol is, on the whole, very small. It is larger in the northern provinces; more recently it has increased as the consumption of wine has decreased. In Austria the consumption of beer is decreasing, while that of whisky is increasing. In Germany the consumption of both beer and whisky has been increasing. The use of beer, as compared with whisky, varies very much in different provinces of Germany; in the east and northeast much whisky and little beer; in the west and northwest, much of both; in the south, very little whisky, but a great deal of beer (Bavaria); the increase of the consumption of whisky is mainly due to its large production and very great cheapness. The consumption of alcoholic drinks within the last ten years, especially strong drinks, has been aided by the rapid increase in the number of saloons.

The relation between drunkenness and crime is not always a parallel one. Crime is not alone conditioned by the quantity or intensity of intemperance, for it owes its rise to many social conditions also; but all these unfavorable conditions are aided by drunkenness, and in this sense the abuse of alcohol increases crime very greatly. It can be said that with the increase of intemperance and of drinkers (by no means identical with the increase of alcoholism) the number of criminals and crime increases. Misuse of alcohol means poverty and pauperism, which are the main sources of crime. The injury of drunkenness to family life can not be reckoned, but daily experience teaches that nothing disturbs the family life as much; the boys fall into idleness, slothfulness, and finally into crime; the girls become the booty of prostitution.

Some of the preventive means against intemperance are: (1) Education of the children of the working classes in an orderly, industrious, and economic life; (2) construction of healthy dwellings for the working classes, so that an overcrowded room may no longer encourage the workingman to seek the saloon; (3) better food, so that he may not be tempted to make up for this want by a temporary supply of whisky, which deceives him in causing him to suppose that he is gaining strength; (4) public coffee houses, with home-like surroundings, papers to read, etc.; (5) formation of temperance societies, which in many ways warn others against the evils of intemperance. While the total-abstinence societies have done much good, yet a very practical organization exists in Switzerland which has three categories of members: (a) Those who are total abstainers; (b) those who take the pledge for a certain length of time; and (c) those who assist the society in a financial way. In this way a unified action can be gained without losing the aid of those who are in favor of all efforts against the evil of drink, yet are not so rigid personally as to be total abstainers, (6) the establishment of inebriate asylums, where the habitual drinker may be rescued.

The state should limit the consumption of whisky to the smallest quantity possible, by (1) the lessening of production and the imposing of a tax. From experience in Sweden, Norway, Finland, Switzerland, and France this has lessened the so-called small house distilleries, which have been one of the greatest causes of house drunkenness; here whisky is made for local consumption, and, on account of primitive methods, is of very bad quality. (2) As to the extreme measure of prohibition, it can not be carried out in thickly populated states, where the intemperance of the people is really great, and it is not necessary where drunkenness is not extensive among the people. (3) A high tax on whisky. The consumption of alcohol increases in proportion to the cheapness of whisky. (4) A moderate tax on the lighter alcoholic drinks. Beer is the greatest enemy of whisky; it must, therefore, be of good quality and not dear, but strong alcoholic beers should be taxed very high; coffee, tea, chocolate, and all necessary articles of food should be made cheap and of good quality. (5) A lessening of the number of licensed places. The need for whisky is not a natural one, but artificial. To increase the saloons increases the number of drinkers. The whisky trade does not follow the law of supply and demand, but rather that of demand and supply. The easier it is for every individual to find whisky at all times, places, and prices the more he will drink until it becomes his unconquerable vice. The lessening the number of licensed places, in connection with a high tax on whisky or other strong drinks, is the best means that the state can employ for the control and repression of drunkenness, and it is in those lands in which political and industrial freedom is valued the most that the severest measures against the whisky business are undertaken. (6) Punishment of the saloon keeper when he sells to persons already drunk or to minors not accompanied by relatives. (7) Inspection of the liquor traffic, both as to place and time of sale. The sale of whisky in groceries should be absolutely prohibited, because women with a tendency to drink are here very easy victims.

The repression of public drunkenness by punishment of the drinker has been tried in many countries, but with little success. Many things are forbidden in the interest of public order and well-being, and though not necessarily in themselves immoral, produce conditions which easily

lead to immorality, or are otherwise dangerous to society. Yet it is rather cruel to permit saloons at every corner, and cheap whisky, and then punish drunkenness.

Measures against the habitual drinker are: (1) Placing the drinker under guardianship. This course would not differ materially from doing the same in case of the spendthrift and the insane. It would lessen the chances of wife and family becoming paupers, and would not only be for the good of the drinker, but a warning to others. (2) Placing in inebriate asylums. In the later stages of habitual drunkenness there is a considerable number of cases of insanity, and the insanity takes the most different forms, as chronic mania, epileptic insanity, delusional insanity, general paralysis, and other phases of incurable insanity. In other cases alcoholic excess is a symptom of a diseased nervous system, where there was insanity before drinking commenced. In the first stages of mania, melancholia, and general paralysis many are driven to the use of alcohol. Dipsomania is a form of insanity, and is periodic. Besides all these there are a number of drinkers on the border line between health and disease, who, on account of their inherited mental weakness and consequent irritableness through overwork, are given to alcoholic excesses. There are a still greater number of habitual drinkers who are not insane, but, through long abuse of alcohol, can not resist drinking; they reach such a degree of volitional and intellectual weakness, of irritability and stupidity, indifference to customs and position, and mistrust and carelessness toward their family, that it is a question whether they are not a common danger to society. The number of these persons among those suffering from chronic alcoholism is by far the greatest. Gauster^a says that they are the most dangerous, because their condition is latent and attacks can appear suddenly. Should such drinkers be left to go free in life?

ALCOHOLIC HYPNOTISM.^a

Or all diseases which have the most numerous incidental and indirect evil effects, none, perhaps, is more conspicuous than alcoholism. It weakens the normal resistance of the body to most diseases. We used to hear a well-known Paris surgeon say to the students: "Gentlemen, this man has been a drinker, which complicates his chances of recovery."

But alcoholism is a still greater evil on its sociological side. The police-court platitude, "Ten dollars or thirty days," is most often pronounced upon the poor. If the unfortunate wife struggles to furnish the \$10, it signifies taking from herself and children their very life blood. If her husband is imprisoned, she loses his support for thirty days. This means less food and raiment where already there may be criminal deprivation. In either dilemma the innocent mother and children almost forfeit the rights of existence.

But alcoholism also develops criminal tendencies in certain individuals, which they seem to be unconscious of. We refer to criminal acts committed in a condition of alcoholic hypnotism or somnambulism.

Somnambulism may be one of the deeper stages of hypnotism; it may be regarded as autohypnotism, where the subject is acting out his dreams.

^a The American Journal of Sociology, also the Journal of Inebriety.

Somnambulism may be defined as the condition of an individual who seems to act in a normal manner, who performs acts relatively complex, but has no knowledge of what he does, or at least does not preserve any memory of it. As everyone knows, this state is met with either under color of an accident in some sort of idiopathic condition, as natural somnambulism, or one is under the influence of hypnotism or hypnotic somnambulism.

Alcoholic somnambulism is important from the legal point of view. That alcohol, in certain quantities, can produce at least a fleeting oblivion, an eclipse of memory, is a fact demonstrated by daily experience. Everyone has heard it said, if he has not proved it himself, that when intoxicated a man goes home, opens the door, and goes to bed—all this without the least consciousness or slightest remembrance of it. This same forgetfulness is shown in alcoholic delirium. The phenomena of amnesia are much more common than it is thought. Vetault gives a number of facts to show that this is the rule under the influence of profound alcoholic intoxication. When there is violent delirium or an approach to noisy alcoholic frenzy, when homicidal impulses of irresistible brutality have sway, there is, upon awaking, no remembrance of the acts. The forgetfulness is as complete as that which follows the paroxysm of epileptic fury, with which the paroxysm of alcoholic fury has numerous points of resemblance.

Francotte says he has examined several accused persons who, having acted under the influence of alcoholic delirium, affirmed that they had retained no memory of the incriminating act. Their recital, and the circumstances surrounding the deed, tended to demonstrate their sincerity.

In the case in point the phenomena of drunkenness and the symptoms of alcoholic delirium are a proof, or at least an exterior manifestation, of psychic trouble which has given place to forgetfulness.

We give a number of cases^a illustrative of alcoholic somnambulism. The first is a case of amnesia, whose genuineness can not be suspected. P., 28 years of age, was brought to an asylum on Wednesday in the afternoon. The police found him on Tuesday, in the morning, at a public place in the city. He had amused himself some time by playing on the doorsills of one of the houses with his watch, with pieces of money, and other small objects. In spite of all efforts to induce him to speak he did not reply to a question. He seemed to have lost completely the use of speech and hearing. He had the appearance of an idiot.

The physician called declared that the subject appeared not to hear what was said to him. It was impossible to draw from him a word; general sensibility seemed abolished.

Neither the police nor the physician thought the affair a case of intoxication. There was nothing characteristic in his manner of walking. He was sent to the asylum. On his entrance the brother guardian did not suspect him of alcoholism. The patient could not speak or see. They thought he was blind because his pupils did not stir when a handkerchief was waved before his eyes; his look was fixed; his expression lifeless. They offered him something to eat. At first he refused without speaking or otherwise expressing anything. When they prevailed upon him to drink a cup of coffee and eat a little bread, he seemed to awake from a dream, demanding where he was.

^a Reported by Francotte, Bulard, and Bouchet.

On Thursday he was perfectly himself. He said that on Monday, having already drunk a good deal of alcohol, in the evening he entered a cafe in a street. There he found a friend, with whom he took several drinks. He left the cafe, not knowing how, and from that moment memory failed him.

Consciousness only returned Wednesday afternoon. He remembered what had happened since then and previous to that time.

It was in vain that they sought to awaken any remembrance. Memory preserved not the least vestige of any event occurring between Monday evening and Wednesday afternoon. The subject declared that for a long time he had been given to alcoholic excesses. At the beginning, especially, he had had frequent attacks of the "drink fever." He had been very drunk two hundred times, he said; but nothing like this had ever happened to him. He persisted in the belief that his companion had put something foreign into his drink. It had never made him seriously ill, nor caused any trouble. His complexion was anæmic. There was a slight trembling of the tongue and hands. He showed different signs of degeneracy: ill-formed skull, unsymmetrical ears, etc.

There was no notable point of anomaly in his mental state. One of his sisters had been in the asylum, where she died. She was insane and had nervous attacks.

Here was a state of unconsciousness, of amnesia, brought on by alcohol and lasting nearly forty-eight hours.

Certainly this case had nothing to do with somnambulism. The appearance of the subject was far from being normal. He was in a kind of stupor. But, on the other hand, he did not present the appearance of a drunken man, and he had preserved a certain motor activity.

We give below a number of examples of alcoholic somnambulism.

A certain man was accused of cheating, committed under the following circumstances: Several times, and in different localities, he entered an inn or cafe, ate and drank, and then went away without paying his bill, or he refused to acknowledge his account when it was presented to him. His father was a drunkard. At the age of 15 years the son began to drink and indulge in many excesses. From the beginning, after these errors, the patient had, he himself said, troubled thoughts. He was conscious of this, but, not being incoherent in writing or speaking, no one perceived it.

Later he showed such marked mental trouble that they thought of sending him to an asylum. It was utterly impossible for him to recall what he had done for fifteen days. He remembered only that at this period of his existence he dreamed of riches, of treasures which he would discover. After still greater excesses, he told of them himself; he was tormented, disturbed, preoccupied. He imagined people followed him.

At last, one lovely day—he could not recall whether it was evening or morning—he set out for a city where he was to spend the night; then, always possessed by the thought of people following him, he took at the dockyard a ticket for the first station on the road.

He did not stay there, but went to the country of his father, where he gave himself up to excess in drink. He could not tell how long he remained there. He stayed with a paternal aunt, who drank also. It was, so to speak, a hereditary habit in his father's family. He could not recall how he left his aunt; and from that moment memory completely failed. He could not recall what had happened, and no matter

how he was pushed or questioned, having returned to his senses, he did not vary in his statements.

As to other places where they accused him of having been and left without paying what he owed, he invariably affirmed that he had no remembrance of any such thing. "I do not deny it," said he, "since the justice says so; but I do not recollect it at all."

It was impossible for him to recall how he got to a place. He found himself in prison, and from that moment his memory was a little better.

His previous life he related quite well. Persons who had seen him during the period when the incriminating acts had taken place had noticed no sign of mental trouble. During his sojourn at the asylum there was evidence of special hallucinations of a terrifying nature and ideas of grandeur and wealth.

According to Lentz, epileptics, after violent fits, talk in a coherent way, conducting themselves with every appearance of reason, and yet there exists at the time absolutely no inward consciousness. Their conduct is only a succession of actions entirely automatic, in which consciousness has no part, but which, as in somnambulism, still preserves some connection and seems at first the result of determinate intellectual combinations.

As an example we give H., a case of Lentz, aged 23 years.

The father of H. almost constantly drank; his mother was irritable and violent.

With a companion he spent the whole night going from saloon to saloon. The next day they went to the country. They met a woman seated on the roadside. He drew a knife which he had been using to clean his pipe. "Woman," he cried, "I'll kill you; save yourself, woman, or I will kill you!" The woman was saved; but at the same moment three workmen appeared at the turn of the way. Henry threw himself on them and struck them successively with the greatest rapidity. After this murder Henry was calm. He walked on; and turning to his companion said to him: "Are you going?" But upon cries of "Murder!" and "Assassin!" he threw away his knife, ran from his pursuers, fell an instant before an obstacle, rose, entered the town, went to his home, and there in the greatest confusion undressed and went to bed.

Being awakened from a deep sleep he replied with strong protestations and violent despair.

Henry was not arrested until the next day. He manifested the greatest astonishment and complete forgetfulness of all that had transpired since he left the last alehouse.

He was condemned to ten years of solitary confinement.

In all these observations we notice the presence of somnambulist elements, unconsciousness, amnesia—activity relatively complex joined to a normal appearance. If we closely examine the observations we find the indications of certain anomalies of conduct and character having existed during the somnambulist state. Doubtless the subject would reveal disorders more marked still if he could be examined closely by a competent person. Simple somnambulism itself resembles very imperfectly an individual awake and of sound mind. What characterizes it especially is immobility of countenance, fixed look, haggard and dim eyes. Similar peculiarities are found among hypnotized somnambulists and probably in all forms of somnambulism. Those who have had occasion to observe subjects in a state of hypnotic

somnambulism must have been struck by the transformation which the countenance undergoes, the general surprise at the moment of passing from the hypnotic state to a waking condition.

It is not less true that the appearance of the somnambulist is that of a man awake and conscious. But in legal medicine, the expert not being present at the moment of the crime, we must be satisfied with the deposition of witnesses usually not at all familiar with such delicate observations. It is necessary to be certain; for these normal appearances by no means exclude unconsciousness, forgetfulness, and consequent irresponsibility. A man who acts reasonably does not necessarily act rationally or consciously; he may be in a state of somnambulism.

It is not true that the effect of intoxication may always be one and the same; that the man who stands straight, walks, and performs certain acts with the appearance of reason can not be essentially troubled in his consciousness and free will, and should be regarded as responsible for all his actions.

Forgetfulness does not necessarily imply unconsciousness. Observation of facts concerning sleep demonstrates the contrary. We are conscious of having dreamed and vaguely conscious of the subject of the dream. If we fix our attention and immediately recall these memories, we can often put together the fragments of the dream. On the contrary, if upon awaking we follow our occupations, the light traces left in the memory by the subconscious activity of sleep are effaced by the conscious acts of waking. In making judgments of such cases one must take account of previous attacks of somnambulism. All incriminating circumstances should be carefully established. In questioning the witnesses the slightest signs of mental perturbation, such as expression of countenance, look, and attitude, should be noted.

HYPNOTISM AS A REMEDY FOR ALCOHOLISM.

A great many cases of alcoholism can not be cured by any method whatsoever. The claim of certain charlatans that they succeed in curing 90 to 95 per cent of cases of this malady shows great dishonesty on their part as well as ignorance and credulity on the part of the public. Experience with many vaunted remedies has shown that, when they effect a genuine cure and not merely a temporary improvement, the result is due to suggestion, which is largely, though indirectly, fused in all these methods of treatment. In the cases cited in Lloyd-Tuckey hypnotism was almost exclusively used. Among the chief causes of alcoholism are:

Bad health, principally when it is accompanied by insomnia and neurasthenia.

Overwork, when the patient resorts to alcohol to stimulate his failing energies.

Anxieties and cares, which he seeks to forget temporarily; influence of environment, and bad example, and hereditary predisposition.

The cause of the difficulty must first be discovered. Attention to the general health, freedom from care, change of associates are sometimes sufficient in themselves to effect a cure. In cases where something else is necessary, hypnotic suggestion may be a moral and mental tonic.

In cases of hereditary dipsomania hypnotism is perhaps the only remedy which has any chance of success.

Of 19 dipsomaniacs treated by methods other than hypnotic, not one

was permanently cured. Of 65 cases in which hypnotism was used, 12 were completely cured, 39 temporarily cured, or greatly benefited, and in 10 cases no result whatever was obtained.

LAWS AGAINST HYPNOTISM.

The governments of several countries have placed obstacles in the way of the use of hypnotism as a curative agent. In France the practice of hypnotism and all that pertains to it is forbidden to all military physicians. In Russia it is allowed to all physicians without exceptions, on condition that two physicians assist at all the experiments. The operating physician, furthermore, must make immediate report to the medical bureau of the methods he has used, the results he has obtained, or the results he has attempted to obtain, and the names of the assisting physicians. Such restrictions are equivalent to prohibition.

Packiewicz says he is convinced that hypnotism is the most innocent therapeutical agent, and is not in the slightest degree dangerous. Twelve years of experience in hypnotism, during which time he has had more than twenty thousand sittings, have brought him to this way of thinking. The fact that the contrary opinion is current is due, he thinks, to physicians who are incompetent to practice hypnotism properly, and in bad faith preach against it. In nervous and mental diseases hypnotism is a very powerful curative agent, and no specialist ought to neglect to use it. Many competent neurologists agree with him that hypnotism in the hands of physicians is harmless. They are Bérillon, Bernheim, Danilewski, Delbœuf, Dumontpallier, Eulenburg, Forel, Janet, de Jong, von Kraft-Ebing, Liébeault, Moebius, Moll, Morselli, Obersteiner, von Schrenk-Notzing, Tokarski, Lloyd-Tuckey, Wetterstrand, Vogt, Voisin. All these physicians use hypnotism in their practice, and have not met with any serious accidents.

INSANITY AND GENIUS.

Human beings may be classified, in a general way, into normal and abnormal. By "abnormal" is meant departure from the normal. While the term "abnormal" often suggests ethical or æsthetical characteristics, it is here employed with no such reference. Thus a great reformer and a great criminal are both abnormal in the sense of diverging much from the average or normal man. The principal and extreme forms of human abnormality are insanity, genius, and crime.^a The third form, "crime," includes all excessive degrees of wrong.

Assuming the natural history point of view, man should be studied as we study all species below him. In an investigation, therefore, of insanity and genius we must, as far as possible, eliminate all those ethical and æsthetical ideas (however important) that we have been accustomed to associate with these terms, for an empirical study is concerned with facts rather than with sentiments, emotions, or ideals connected with such facts.

INSANITY.

Krafft-Ebing^b defines insanity, from the anatomical point of view, as a diffuse disease of the brain, accompanied with nutritive, inflamma-

^aThe author treats of deeper forms of abnormality and crime in "Criminology," New York, 1893, and considers degenerative sexuality in another work entitled, "Formes Graves de la Criminalité," Paris et Lyon, 1893.

^bPsychiatrie, 1890.

tory, and degenerative changes. The division between mental and brain diseases is purely a practical one and not strictly scientific. Mental diseases are a special class of cerebral diseases, and from a clinical standpoint are distinguished by psycho-functional disturbances. Insanity is not only a disease of the brain, but also a diseased alteration of the personality. One difficulty in distinguishing between sanity and insanity is due to the fact that the manifestations of one can correspond exactly to those of the other. The first symptoms are not generally intellectual, but emotional; there is abnormal irritability. The fluctuating line between sanity and insanity, as frequently seen in public and private life, can, says Krafft-Ebing, oscillate between the extremes of genius and mental disease. Such men show peculiarities in thought, feeling, and action; they are called strange or foolish because the great majority of men feel or act otherwise. So their combinations of ideas are uncommon, new, striking, and often interesting; yet they are not capable of making use of these new thoughts. Such individuals are not yet insane, but still they are not quite right; they form the passage over to insanity; they are on the threshold. They are so eccentric as to be said to have a strain of madness in them. Maudsley^a calls this an "insane temperament;" it is characterized by a defective or unstable condition of moral element, a tendency to sudden caprices, to act independently of the social organism, a personal gratification that seems to others a sign of great vanity. But they are so engrossed in their own impulses as not to be conscious of how it affects others. In Maudsley's opinion this predisposition to insanity lies close to genius in some cases. Some persons having this insane temperament may be called mattoids, to use Lombroso's expression; they are strikingly peculiar, eccentric, and original, but generally in useless ways; they show disproportionate development; they are closely allied by heredity to mental disease and may gradually develop into this state; thus one member of a family may show genius and another be insane or epileptic. This may indicate an extreme sensibility in the family which under different conditions of life and body has taken different forms. This extreme nervous sensibility may endow a person with genius, but not the highest genius, for it lacks the power of the critical sense and the vast intelligence of the genius which permits him to correct his wild imagination. The insane temperament shows originality, but lacks a critical spirit; the ordinary normal mind has some critical spirit, but lacks originality; the genius possesses both originality and critical power.

Clouston says that there are a number of examples of insane temperaments ranging from inspired idiots to inspired geniuses; that De Quincey, Cowper, Turner, Shelley, Tasso, Lamb, and Goldsmith may be reckoned as having had in some degree the insane temperament. Some are original, but in the highest degree impracticable and unwise in the conventional sense of the term. Another form of this temperament is sometimes illustrated in spiritualism, thought reading, clairvoyancy, and hypnotism. The pseudo genius or mattoid is then one who has the insane temperament with originality and particular talents in certain lines, and often displays a mixture of insanity and genius. In the words of Maudsley, he desires to set the world "violently right;" under mental strain he is impulsive and may be attacked with derangement. A weaker and much less important class of mattoids are the

^aPathology of Mind.

egotistic variety, with no capacity to look at self from an outside standpoint. This self-feeling may widen into the family, but develops no further. This class consider their oddities higher than the virtues of others. Another phase is illustrated by those who have little sympathy for their own kind; they often have extreme affection for some dog or cat, and suppose that they are exceedingly humanitarian because they love animals more than human beings.

Hammond^a says that "the discrimination of the very highest flights of genius from insanity is a difficult and at times an impossible undertaking, for they may exist in one and the same person." Hammond also is of opinion that more people of great genius exhibit manifestations of insanity than do persons of ordinary mental faculties. He mentions as showing symptoms of insanity or at the close of life passing into fatuity, Tasso, Burns, Swift, Mozart, Hayden, Walter Scott, Blake, and Poe. Schüle^b defines insanity as a disease of the person, resting upon and caused by a brain affection. Here it is to be understood, psychologically speaking, that a pathological symptom does not constitute the essence of a mental disturbance, be the thought ever so broken or the disposition or action ever so anomalous. Hallucination under certain conditions can appear temporarily, or superstition can come within the range of specific mental disease, and yet there is no insanity. In true mental disease the whole person must be included, so that in his thoughts, feelings, and actions he is no more determined by motives accessible to reflection and conclusion, but by irremovable feelings and ideas upon the Ego, which if called up exercise an incontestible superior power. It is the mental compulsion that constitutes the essence of mental derangement. The patient often stands under its power as a whole personality; at another time he is theoretical or reflective as to this force over him; but the distinctive point is, that he can not clear it away or overcome it through logic nor stop it by his will. This compulsion is grounded in a fundamental organic brain disease.

According to Arndt^c our manner of knowing, feeling, and willing is differently developed, and shows itself in feeble or strong constitutions as nervousness, weakness, or insanity; or as gift, talent, or genius. Every mental disease is a reaction of the nervous system impaired in its nutrition, especially the nutrition of the brain. Arndt's idea is that when a nervous condition appears occasionally in parents and grandparents it sooner or later passes over into mental disease, as seen in children of aged parents born late, or in children of parents with talent or genius. In the first case (in children born late) this nervous condition develops with the decrease of vital energy; in the second case it comes from the nature of the higher endowment or genius. This endowment or genius is an expression of a highly organized nervous system, more particularly that of the brain. Thus it is that all higher gifts, including genius, are very frequently subject to all kinds of diseased conditions, peculiarities, idiosyncrasies, and perversities. Arndt mentions, as examples among poets, Tasso, Lenau, Heinrich, von Kleist, Hölderin, Gutzkow; among artists, Robert Schumann, Carl Blechen; among scientists, Pascal, Frederic Sauvages, John Müller, Robert von Meyer; among statesmen and generals, Tiberius and the Duke of Marlborough. A large number of geniuses were the last of

^aTreatise on Insanity, New York, 1883.

^bKlinische Psychiatrie.

^cLehrbuch der Psychiatrie.

their kind, as Democritus, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Cæsar, Augustus, Galenus, Paracelsus, Newton, Shakespeare, Leibnitz, Kant, Voltaire, Gustave Adolphus, Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Linné, Cuvier, Byron, Alexander von Humboldt. The family of Schiller have died out in their male members. This dying out of genius can only be explained, according to Arndt, by the weakness of their organizations and the resulting hyperæsthesia. This also is an explanation of the fact that the brothers and sisters of geniuses are often mediocre, and sometimes weak-minded.

GENIUS.

Moreau of Tours^a holds that genius is the highest expression, the *plus ultra* of intellectual activity, which is due to overexcitation of the nervous system, and in this sense is neurotic; that disease of the nervous centers is a hereditary condition, favoring the development of the intellectual faculties. He maintains, on the basis of biographical facts, that among distinguished men one finds the largest number of insane; that the children of geniuses are inferior even to those of average men, owing to convulsions and cerebral diseases in infancy. Genius is always isolated; it is a summum of nature's energy, after which her procreative forces are exhausted. Mental dynamism can not be exhaled to genius, unless the organ of thought is in a condition analogue to that of an abnormal irritability, which is also favorable to the development of hereditary insanity. When the mind reaches its highest limit it is in danger of falling into dementia. The cerebral troubles of great men, from simple nervousness to normal perturbation, are the natural if not necessary efforts of their organization. Lélut^b also considers genius a nervous affection, a semimorbid state of the brain. Nisbet^c holds that genius and insanity "are but different phases of a morbid susceptibility of or a want of balance in the cerebro-spinal system." "Whenever a man's life is at once sufficiently illustrious and recorded with sufficient fullness he inevitably falls into the morbid category." Huxley says: "Genius, to my mind, means innate capacity of any kind above the average mental level." From a biological point of view I should say that a "genius" among men stands in the same position as a "sport" among animals and plants, and is a product of that variability which is the postulate of selection. I should think it probable that a large proportion of "genius sports" are likely to come to grief, physically and socially, and that the intensity of feeling, which is one of the conditions of what is commonly called genius, is especially liable to run into the fixed ideas which are at the bottom of so much insanity.^d Lombroso^e says that from an anatomical and biological study of men of genius, who are semi-insane, from an investigation of the pathological causes of their apparition, marks of which are almost always left in their descendants, there arises the conception of the morbid degenerative nature of genius.

While, then, some alienists hold that genius is a pathological condition of the nervous system, a hyperæsthesia, a nervous, or mental disease, others do not go so far; yet all seem to be agreed that the relation between insanity and genius is very close.

As an introduction to the biographical study of genius it will be interesting to give the opinions of geniuses themselves.

Aristotle says that under the influence of a congestion of the head

^a *Psychologie morbide.* ^b *Démon de Socrate.* ^c *The Insanity of Genius*, London, 1891.

^d Nisbet, *the Insanity of Genius*, London, 1891.

^e *L'Homme de Génie.*

there are persons who become poets, prophets, and sybils. Plato^a affirms that delirium is not an evil but a great benefaction when it emanates from the divinity.

Democritus^b makes insanity an essential condition of poetry. Didrot^c says: "Ah, how close the insane and the genius touch; they are imprisoned and enchained; or, statues are raised to them." Voltaire says: "Heaven in forming us mixed our life with reason and insanity; the elements of our imperfect being; they compose every man, they form his essence." Pascal says: "Extreme mind is close to extreme insanity." Mirabeau affirms that common sense is the absence of too vivid passion; it marches by beaten paths, but genius never. Only men with great passions can be great. Cato^d said before committing suicide: "Since when have I shown signs of insanity?" Tasso said: "I am compelled to believe that my insanity is caused by drunkenness and by love; for I know well that I drink too much." Cicero speaks of the *furor poeticus*; Horace of the *amabilis insania*; Lamartine of the mental disease called genius. Newton in a letter to Locke says that he passed some months without having a "consistency of mind." Chateaubriand says that his chief fault is weariness, disgust of everything, and perpetual doubt. Dryden says: "Great wit to madness is nearly allied." Lord Beaconsfield says: "I have sometimes half believed, although the suspicion is mortifying, that there is only a step between his state who deeply indulges in imaginative meditation and insanity. I was not always sure of my identity or even existence, for I have found it necessary to shout aloud to be sure that I lived."^e Schopenhauer confessed that when he composed his great work he carried himself strangely, and was taken for insane. He said that men of genius are often like the insane, given to continual agitation. Tolstoi acknowledges that philosophical scepticism had led him to a condition bordering on insanity. George Sands says of herself, that at about 17, she became deeply melancholic, that later she was tempted to suicide; that this temptation was so vivid, sudden, and bizarre that she considered it a species of insanity. Heine^f said that his disease may have given a morbid character to his later compositions.

However paradoxical such sayings may seem, a serious investigation will show striking resemblances between the highest mental activity and diseased mind. As a proof of this, we will give a number of facts, to which many more might be added.

BIOGRAPHICAL FACTS SHOWING ECCENTRICITIES, NERVOUS DISEASES, AND SYMPTOMS OF INSANITY.

The difficulty of obtaining facts of an abnormal or pathological nature, and of other unfavorable data, is obvious. Authors have not only concealed such data, but have not deemed them important enough to record. It is due to the medical men, whose life brings them closest to abnormal reality, that such facts have been gathered. If it be said that the abnormal or exceptional must be taken with some caution, because it is natural for the mind to exaggerate striking characteristics, it must be remembered that such facts, when unfavorable to reputation, are concealed. In the study of any exceptional or abnormal

^a Phædo.

^b Horace, *ars Poetica*.

^c Dictionnaire Encyclopédique.

^d Plutarch.

^e Contarinia Fleming.

^f Correspondence Inédite, Paris, 1877.

individual, as the insane or genius, one finds much more concealed than is known.

Socrates had hallucinations from his familiar genius or demon. Pausanias, the Lacedemonian, after killing a young slave, was tormented until his death by a spirit which pursued him in all places and which resembled his victim. Lucretius was attacked with intermittent mania. Bayle says this mania left him lucid intervals, during which he composed six books, "*De rerum natura*." He was 44 years of age when he put an end to his life. Charles V had epileptic attacks during his youth; he stammered. He retreated to a monastery, where he had the singular phantasy of celebrating his own funeral rites in his own presence. His mother (Jane of Castile) was insane and deformed. His grandfather (Ferdinand of Arragon) died at the age of 62 in a state of profound melancholia. Peter the Great, during infancy, was subject to nervous attacks which degenerated into epilepsy. One of his sons had hallucinations; another convulsions. Cæsar was epileptic, of feeble constitution, with pallid skin, and subject to headaches. Linné, a precocious genius, had a cranium hydrocephalic in form. He suffered from a stroke of paralysis. At the end of one attack he had forgotten his name. He died in a state of senile dementia. Raphael experienced temptations to suicide.

Pascal,^a from birth till death, suffered from nervous trouble. At 1 year of age he fell into a languor, during which he could not see water without manifesting great outbursts of passion; and, still more peculiar, he could not bear to see his father and mother near one another. In 1627 he had paralysis from his waist down, so that he could not walk without crutches; this condition continued three months. During his last hours he was taken with terrible convulsions, in which he died. The autopsy showed peculiarities. His cranium appeared to have no suture, unless perhaps the lambdoid or sagittal. A large quantity of the brain substance was very much condensed. Opposite the ventricles there were two impressions as of a finger in wax. These cavities were full of clotted and decayed blood, and there was, it is said, a gangrenous condition of the dura mater. Walter Scott, during his infancy, had precarious health, and before the age of 2 was paralyzed in his right limb. He had a stroke of apoplexy. He had this vision on hearing of the death of Byron: Coming into the dining room he saw before him the image of his dead friend; on advancing toward it, he recognized that the vision was due to drapery extended over the screen.^b

Some men of genius who have observed themselves describe their inspiration as a gentle fever, during which their thoughts become rapid and involuntary. Dante says:

* * * l'mi son un che, quando
Armore spira, noto ed in quel modo
Che detta dentro vo significando.

(I am so made that when love inspires me, I attend; and according as it speaks in me, I speak.)

Voltaire, like Cicero, Demosthenes, Newton, and Walter Scott, was born under the saddest and most alarming conditions of health. His feebleness was such that he could not be taken to church to be chris-

^a *L'Amulette de Pascal*, 1846.

^b *Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal*, January, 1843.

tened. During his first years he manifested an extraordinary mind. In his old age he was like a bent shadow.^a He had an attack of apoplexy at the age of 83. His autopsy showed a slight thickness of the bony walls of the cranium. In spite of his advanced age, there was an enormous development of the encephalon.^b

Michael Angelo,^c while painting "The Last Judgment," fell from his scaffold and received a painful injury in the leg. He shut himself up and would not see anyone. Bacio Rontini, a celebrated physician, came by accident to see him. He found all the doors closed. No one responding, he went into the cellar and came upstairs. He found Michael Angelo in his room, resolved to die. His friend the physician would not leave him. He brought him out of the peculiar frame of mind into which he had fallen. The elder brother of Richelieu, the cardinal, was a singular man; he committed suicide because of a rebuke from his parents. The sister of Richelieu was insane. Richelieu himself had attacks of insanity; he would figure himself as a horse, but afterwards would have no recollection of it. Descartes, after a long retirement, was followed by an invisible person, who urged him to pursue his investigations after the truth. Goethe was sure of having perceived the image of himself coming to meet him. Goethe's mother died of an apoplectic attack. Cromwell, when at school, had a hallucination in his room; suddenly the curtains opened and a woman of gigantic stature appeared to him, announcing his future greatness. In the days of his power he liked to recount this vision. Cromwell had violent attacks of melancholic humor; he spoke of his hypochondria. His entire moral life was molded by a sickly and neuropathical constitution, which he had at birth. Rousseau was a type of the melancholic temperament, assuming sometimes the symptoms of a veritable pathetic insanity. He sought to realize his phantoms in the least susceptible circumstances; he saw everywhere enemies and conspirators (frequent in the first stages of insanity). Once coming to his sailing vessel in England he interpreted the unfavorable winds as a conspiracy against him, then mounted an elevation and began to harangue the people, although they did not understand a word he said. In addition to his fixed ideas and deliriant convictions, Rousseau suffered from attacks of acute delirium, a sort of maniacal excitation. He died from an apoplectic attack. Jeanne d'Arc was a genius by her intrepid will; she had faith in her visions; her faith rested upon the immovable foundation of numerous hallucinations having the force of moral and intellectual impulsion, making her superior to those around her. Science can pronounce as to her inspirations, but its judgment does not diminish in the least the merit of her heroism. Jeanne was of the peasant class and uneducated. According to her statement, she first heard supernatural voices when she was 13 years old. Mohammed was epileptic. He persistently claimed to be a messenger from God, receiving his first revelation at the age of 42. He lost his father in infancy and his mother in childhood; was a traveling merchant, and married a wealthy widow fifteen years older than himself. His revelations began with visions in sleep. He used to live alone in a cave. He had interviews with the Angel Gabriel. Henry Heine died of a

^a Ségur; "Mem.," t. I.

^b R. Parise, *Philosophie et Hygiène*.

^c R. Parise. *Histoire de la Peinture en Italie*.

chronic disease of the spinal column. Lotze was often melancholic. Molière suffered from convulsions; delay or derangement could throw him into a convulsion.

Mozart's musical talent was revealed at 3 years of age; between 4 and 6 he composed pieces with expertness. Mozart died at 36 of cerebral hydropsy. He had a presentiment of his approaching end. He was subject to fainting fits before and during the composition of his famous "Requiem." Mozart always thought that the unknown person which presented itself to him was not an ordinary being, but surely had relations with another world, and that he was sent to him to announce his end. Cuvier died of an affection of the nervous centers; the autopsy showed a voluminous brain. He lost all his children by a fever called "cerebral." Condillac had frequent attacks of somnambulism; he sometimes found his work finished in the morning. Bossuet suffered from a disease from which he once lost speech, knowledge, and even the faculty of understanding. Dumas says: "Victor Hugo was dominated by the fixed idea to become a great poet and the greatest man of all countries and times. For a certain time the glory of Napoleon haunted him." Chopin ordered by will that he be buried in a gala costume, white cravat, small shoes, and short trousers. He abandoned his wife, whom he loved, because she offered another person a seat before she offered it to him. Giordano Bruno considered himself enlightened by a superior light sent from God, who knows the essence of things. Comte considered himself the "Great Priest" of humanity. Madame de Staël died in a state of delirium, which had lasted several days; according to some authors, several months. The autopsy showed a large quantity of cerebral matter, and very thin cranium. Moreau of Tours says she had a nervous habit of rolling continually between her fingers small strips of paper, an ample provision of which was kept on her mantelpiece. She used opium immoderately. She had a singular idea during her whole life; she was afraid of being cold in the tomb; she desired that she be enveloped in fur before burial.

English men of letters who have become insane, or have had hallucinations and peculiarities symptomatic of insanity, are Swift, Johnson, Cowper, Southey, Shelley, Byron, Goldsmith, Lamb, and Poe. Swift was also cruel in conduct, but he was hardly responsible, as his insanity was congenital. His paternal uncle lost speech and memory and died insane. Swift was somewhat erratic and wild as a university student. He suffered at times from giddiness, impaired eyesight, deafness, muscular twitchings and paralysis of the muscle on the right side of the mouth. He had a bad temper, was called "mad person," actually feared insanity, saying once, on seeing a tree that had been struck by lightning, "I shall be like that tree, I shall die at the top." Later in life he became a violent maniac. The post-mortem examination showed a cerebral serous effusion and softening of the cortex. There were a number of cranial anomalies. Shelley when young was strange and fond of musing alone, and was called "Mad Shelley;" he suffered from somnambulism and bad dreams, and was excitable and impetuous; these symptoms increased with age; at twenty he constantly took laudanum for his nervous condition; he had hallucinations; he saw a child rise from the sea and clap his hands, a vision which it was difficult to reason away. Much eccentricity existed in the immediate antecedents of Shelley. Charles Lamb was confined in an insane asy-

lum. Johnson was hypochondriacal and apprehended insanity, fancying himself seized with it; he had convulsions, cramps, and a paralytic seizure depriving him of speech; he had hallucinations of hearing. Carlyle considered Southey the most excitable man of his acquaintance. Southey's mind failed and he became an imbecile and died; a year before his death he was in a dreamy state, little conscious of his surroundings. Southey wrote verses before he was 8 years of age. His maternal uncle was an idiot and died of apoplexy. The mother of Southey had paralysis. Cowper was attacked with melancholia at 20, which continued a year; at another time it returned with greater force. He himself tells of his attempts at suicide; he bought laudanum, keeping it in his pocket, when later a feeling pressed him to carry it into execution; but soon another idea came to him, to go to France and enter a monastery; then the suicidal impulse came again, to throw himself into the river—an inhibitory feeling from taking the laudanum—but he would have succeeded in hanging himself had not the thong to which the rope was fastened broken. After suicidal ideas left him he relapsed into religious melancholia, thinking he had committed the unpardonable sin. He was confined in an asylum eighteen months. Keats was an extremely emotional child, passing from laughter to tears; he was extremely passionate, using laudanum to calm himself; sometimes he fell into despondency. He prophesied truly that he would never have any rest until he reached the grave. The attacks of critics agitated him almost to insanity. His nervousness was very susceptible, so that even “the glitter of the sun” or “the sight of a flower” made his nature tremble. Coleridge was a precocious child, self-absorbed, weakly, and morbid in imagination; this morbidity was the cause of his running away from home when a child and from college when a student; he enlisted as a soldier, and again went to Malta for no reason, permitting his family to depend upon charity. When 30 years of age his physical suffering led him to use opium. Subsequently he had a lateral curvature of the spine (De Quincey). There were many morbid symptoms in the family. Burns says: “My constitution and frame were ab origine blasted with a deep, incurable taint of melancholia which poisons my existence.” Dickens died from effusion of blood upon the brain; he was a sickly child, suffering from violent spasms; when a young man he had a slight nervousness which increased with age, and finally was attacked with incipient paralysis.^a George Eliot suffered from melancholic moods, and from her thirtieth year had severe attacks of headache. As a child she was poor in health and extremely sensitive to terror in the night. She remained a “quivering fear” throughout her whole life.^b De Quincey, the opium eater, took opium as a relief from neuralgia and general nervous irritation. He was in bad health for a long time, dying at the age of 39. Alfred de Musset had attacks of syncope; he died at 47. George Sand described him in the Forest of Fontainebleau in his neurotic terror, in his joy and despair, as manifesting a nervous condition approaching delirium. He had a morbid cerebral sensibility, showing itself in hallucinations; he had a suicidal inclination. He was a dissipated gambler, passing from gaiety to depression. His keen disappointment in love in Italy was accompanied by brain fever. For some time after this he could not speak of his chagrin without fall-

^aFoster. Life of Charles Dickens.

^bJ. W. Cross. Life of George Eliot.

ing into syncope. He had an hallucination, and to distinguish it from real things he had to ask his brother. Wellington was subject to fainting fits; he had epilepsy and died from an attack of the disease. Warren Hastings was sickly during his whole life; in his latter years he suffered from paralysis, giddiness, and hallucinations of hearing. During the time of his paralysis he developed a taste for writing poetry.^a Carlyle,^b the dyspeptic martyr, showed extreme irritability. He says in his diary: "Nerves all inflamed and torn up, body and mind in a hag-ridden condition." He suffered from a paralysis in his right hand. Carlyle's antecedents were conspicuously of a nervous kind. Bach^c died from a stroke of apoplexy; one of his numerous children was an idiot. His family suffered from nervous diseases. Handel^d was very irritable; at the age of 50 he was stricken with paralysis, which so affected his mind that he lived in retirement for a year.

Nisbet^e says: "Pathologically speaking, music is as fatal a gift to its possessor as the faculty for poetry or letters, the biographies of all the greatest musicians being a miserable chronicle of the ravages of nerve disorder extending, like the Mosaic curse, to the third and fourth generation." Newton, in the last years of his life, fell into a melancholia which deprived him of his power of thought. Newton himself in a letter to Locke says that he passed some months without having "a consistency of mind." He was also subject to vertigo. From the manner of manifestation and the results following from this disease, Moreau^f goes so far as to say that it permits a certain degree of diagnosis and may be called acute dementia.

The insanity of Tasso is probable from the fact that, like Socrates, he believed he had a familiar genius which was pleased to talk with him and from whom he learned things never before heard of. Swift died insane. Chateaubriand during his youth had ideas of suicide and attempted to kill himself. His father died of apoplexy; his brother had an eccentricity bordering on insanity; was given to all vices and died of paralysis. "My chief fault," says Chateaubriand, "is weariness, disgust of everything, and perpetual doubt." Tacitus had a son who was an idiot. Beethoven was naturally bizarre and exceedingly irritable. He became deaf and fell into a profound melancholia, in which he died. Alexander the Great had a neurosis of the muscles of the neck, attacking him from birth, and causing his head to incline constantly upon his shoulders. He died at the age of 32, having all the symptoms of acute delirium tremens.^g His brother Arrchide was an idiot. His mother was a dissolute woman; his father was both dissolute and violent. De Balzac (Honoré) died of hypertrophy of the heart, a disease that can predispose one to cerebral congestion. The eccentricity of his ideas is well known. Lamartine says he had peculiar notions about everything; was in contradiction with the common sense of "this low world." His father was as peculiar. Lord Chatham was from a family of original mental disproportions, of peculiarities almost approaching alienation. Lord Chatham did not do things as others; he was mysterious and violent, indolent and active, imperious and charming. Pope was rickety. He had this hallucination: One day he seemed to see an arm come out from the wall, and he inquired of his physician what

^aGleig. *Memoirs of the life of Warren Hastings.*

^bReminiscences.

^cSpitta. *Life of John Sebastian Bach.*

^dRockstro. *Life by Handel.*

^e*The Insanity of Genius.*

^f*Psychologie morbide.*

^gPlutarch.

this arm could be. Lord Byron was scrofulous and rachitic, and club-footed. Sometimes he imagined that he was visited by a ghost; this he attributed to the overexcitability of his brain. He was born in convulsions. Lord Dudley had the conviction that Byron was insane. The Duke of Wellington died of an apoplectic attack. Napoleon I had a bent back; an involuntary movement of the right shoulder, and at the same time another movement of the mouth from left to right. When in anger, according to his own expression, he looked like a hurricane, and felt a vibration in the calf of his left leg. Having a very delicate head, he did not like new hats. He feared apoplexy. To a general in his room he said, "See up there." The general did not respond. "What," said Napoleon, "do you not discover it? It is before you, brilliant, becoming animated by degrees; it cried out, 'that it would never abandon me;' I see it on all great occasions; it says to me to advance, and it is for me a constant sign of fortune."

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Many great men have believed in the existence of a star, of a genius protector. It is probable that many of these hallucinations have aided men in the execution of their plans. Additional biographical data concerning the different types of genius might be added, and many will occur to anyone who has read the lives of great men. In certain instances the authority for some of the facts might be questioned, but the great majority will stand.

Lombroso thinks geniuses differ as much from father and mother, which is characteristic of degeneracy, and thus the physical resemblances between geniuses of different epochs and races are noticed, as in Julius Cæsar and Napoleon. They sometimes lose their national type, and it occurs in the most noble traits, as elevation of forehead, remarkable development of nose and head, and vivacity of the eyes. A parallel example is found in Cretins and insane. Humboldt, Virchow, Bismarck, and Hensholtz do not have, according to Lombroso, the German physiognomy. Byron did not have the physiognomy or the character of the English.

Stammering troubled Æsop, Virgil, Demosthenes, Alcibiades, Erasmus, Cato of Utica, and Charles V. Sterility is not uncommon in great men, as Dryden, Addison, Pope, Swift, Johnson, and Goldsmith. Precocity is a symptom of genius and insanity. Dante composed verses at 9, Tasso and Mirabeau at 10. Comte and Voltaire and Pascal were great thinkers at 13; Niebuhr at 7; Jonathan Edwards and Bossuet and Pope at 12; Goethe before 10; Victor Hugo and Fénélon at 15; Handel and Beethoven composed at 13; Mozart gave concerts at 6; Raphael was renowned at 14. Yet some great men were regarded as poor pupils, as, for example, Pestalozzi, Wellington, Balzac, Humboldt, Boccacio, Linné, Newton, and Walter Scott.

Originality is very common, both to men of genius and the insane; but in the latter case it is generally without purpose. Lombroso goes so far as to make unconsciousness and spontaneity in genius resemble epileptic attacks. Hagen makes irresistible impulse one of the characteristics of genius, as Schüle (see above) does in insanity.^a Mozart avowed that his musical inventions came involuntary, like dreams,

^a Klinische Psychiatrie.

showing an unconsciousness and spontaneity, which are also frequent in insanity. Socrates says that poets create, not by reflection, but by natural instinct. Voltaire said, in a letter to Diderot, that all manifestations of genius are effects of instinct, and that all the philosophers of the world together could not have given "*Les animaux malades de la peste*," which La Fontaine composed without knowing even what he did. According to Goethe a certain cerebral irritation is necessary to poets. Klopstock declared that in dreams he had found many inspirations for his poem.

Thus, as the great thoughts of genius often come spontaneously, so it is with the ideas of the insane.

Geniuses are inclined to misinterpret the acts of others and consider themselves persecuted. These are well-known tendencies of the insane. Boileau and Chateaubriand could not hear a person praised, even their shoemaker, without feeling a certain opposition. Schopenhauer became furious, refused to pay a bill, in which his name was written with a double "p." Unhealthy vanity is also common in the ambitions of monomaniacs.

SOME PHYSICAL ANOMALIES IN MEN OF GENIUS AND IN THE INSANE.

Not a few men of genius are rachitic and some have cranial and cerebral lesions. Vico, Clement VI, and Malbranche had their skulls fractured. Pericles, Bichat, Kant, and Dante had cranial asymmetry. Dante had an abnormal development of the left parietal bone and two osteomata in the frontal bone. Kant was ultrabrachycephalic; the disproportion between the upper part of the occipital bone and the lower part is noticeable; the same is true as to the minimum smallness of the frontal arc as compared with the parietal. The "*soudures*" of the sutures in the crania of Byron, Pascal, and Humboldt are to be noted. Descartes was submicrocephalic. Milton, Linnæus, Cuvier, and Gibbon were hydrocephalic. Dante and Gambetta had small cranial capacity. Rousseau had hydropsical ventricles, Gauss^a and Bichat had a more developed left hemisphere than right.

Bischoff and Rüdinger, in a study of eighteen brains of German savants, have found congenital anomalies of the cerebral convolutions.

Alienists hold in general that a large proportion of mental diseases are the result of degeneracy, that is to say, they are the offspring of drunken, insane, syphilitic, and consumptive parents. The most frequent characteristics of mental diseases are: Apathy, weakness or loss of normal sense, impulsiveness, propensity to doubt, verbosity or exaggerated acuteness, extreme vanity or eccentricity, excessive preoccupation with one's own personality, mystical interpretations of simple facts, hallucinations, abuse of symbols or special terms, sometimes suppressing every other form of expression, and a general physical disproportion through an excessive development of certain faculties or by absence of others. The reader is particularly requested to note these physical symptoms of insanity, for almost all of them, as we have seen, are found in men of genius. If X were substituted for insanity and Y for genius, so as to dispel preconceived notions, an impartial observer would be very liable to say that the characteristics of X and Y bring them under the same general category. Also some other physical characteristics of the insane are almost as frequent in geniuses; they are: A symmetry of face and head, irregularity in teeth,

^a Wagner, *Das Hirngewicht der Menchen*, 1870.

rachitism, face and head very small or very large. In the insane are frequently found abnormally large or small ears or mouth, barelips, hypertrophy of the under lip, gums wide or one sided, bent nose, hands unequal in size, abnormal growth of hair over body, growth of beard on women, and defective eyebrows, etc. Cerebral anæmia is frequent and hyperæmia very frequent in the insane. Wildermuth from an investigation of 127 idiots found 69 normal craniums. Meynert^a says that 114 out of 142 idiots show signs of degeneration. In order that some of the results may be seen more in detail, we give some tables.^b

TABLE I.—*Cranial capacity in cubic centimeters.*

| | |
|--|-------|
| Men: | |
| Average of 30 normal craniums | 1,450 |
| Average of 10 epileptic craniums..... | 1,523 |
| Women: | |
| Average of 30 normal craniums | 1,300 |
| Average of 14 epileptic's craniums | 1,346 |

Here in Table I (as in the case of men of talent and genius in the following Table II) we see that the abnormal exceed the normal in brain development, that is to say, in these cases the insane and genius both exceed the normal man in cranial capacity or weight of brain.

TABLE II.

| Men of talent and genius. | Age. | Weight of brain in grams. | Medium weight of average brain at same age. | Cranial capacity in cubic centimeters. | Horizontal circumference in millimeters. |
|------------------------------|------|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| Webster (statesman) | 70 | 1,520 | 1,303 | | |
| Thackery (humorist) | 52 | 1,660 | 1,368 | | |
| Cuvier (scientist) | 62 | 1,829 | 1,340 | | |
| Gaust (mathematician) | 78 | 1,492 | 1,246 | | |
| Broca (anthropologist) | 65 | 1,485 | 1,331 | | |
| Kant (philosopher) | | | | 1,740 | |
| Napoleon I (general) | | | | | 564 |
| Darwin (scientist) | | | | | 563 |
| Wagner (musician) | | | | | 600 |
| Dante | | | | 1,493 | |
| Schumann, Robert | | | | 1,510 | |
| Schwann (scientist) | | | | | 565 |
| Napoleon III | | 1,500 | | | |
| Müller (scientist) | | | | | 614 |
| Liebig (chemist) | 70 | 1,352 | 1,303 | 1,550 | |
| Whewell (philosopher) | 72 | 1,390 | | | |
| Average of 35 men of talent. | 65 | 1,474 | 1,319 | | |

Taking now 551 millimeters as an average horizontal circumference of the head it will be seen that Napoleon, Darwin, Wagner, Schwann, and Müller exceed the normal. The averages of brain weight for the different ages, given by Welcker, are not absolute, but sufficiently near the truth for comparison.

TABLE III.

| | Weight of brain. | No. of brains. |
|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Melancholia | 1,490.33 | 9 |
| Mania | 1,438.46 | 15 |
| Old cases | 1,454.00 | 23 |
| Transition forms..... | 1,447.05 | 15 |
| | | 62 |

^a Meynert. *Klinische Vorlesungen über Psychiatrie*, 1890.^b Welcker., *Schiller's Schädel*, etc.

If 1,350 grams is taken as an average weight for a brain, Table III gives 62 insane much above the normal, but this is 62 out of 579 brains weighed. If we take the totals of the 579 as given in Table IV, all are below the average except the maniacs among men. The extreme divergence from the average may be regarded as abnormal and in the light of anomalies. To show more clearly the anomalous nature of the brains of the insane, Table V is given.

TABLE IV.

| | Sex. | Weight. |
|-----------------------------|------------|----------|
| Total melancholia..... | Men..... | 1,295.18 |
| | Women..... | 1,210.37 |
| Total mania..... | Men..... | 1,376.41 |
| | Women..... | 1,221.09 |
| Total old cases..... | Men..... | 1,319.22 |
| | Women..... | 1,175.74 |
| Total paralytics..... | Men..... | 1,214.82 |
| | Women..... | 1,068.24 |
| Total transition forms..... | Men..... | 1,336.03 |
| | Women..... | 1,190.03 |

We see therefore from these tables that particular individuals among both the insane and genius show extremely large cerebral capacity, but that in general the insane are much below the normal while the genius is above in brain capacity and brain weight.

TABLE V.

| | Sex. | No. | Weight. |
|-----------------------|------------|-----|----------|
| Melancholia..... | Men..... | 33 | 1,052.00 |
| | Women..... | 51 | 1,035.65 |
| Mania..... | Men..... | 39 | 1,035.00 |
| | Women..... | 53 | 1,035.00 |
| Old cases..... | Men..... | 86 | 1,057.40 |
| | Women..... | 31 | 1,032.81 |
| Paralytics..... | Men..... | 145 | 1,048.88 |
| | Women..... | 29 | 1,055.06 |
| Transition forms..... | Men..... | 43 | 1,055.06 |
| | Women..... | 49 | 1,055.06 |

Bischoff found some of the heaviest brains (weighing 1,650, 1,778⁷, 1,770, and 1,925 grams) among common and unknown laborers; but such cases are very rare, so much so that the average is not affected. De Quatrefages says that the largest brain has been found in a lunatic, and the next largest in a genius. The main fact brought out by the tables is the large number of anomalies and deviations from the normal in both insanity and genius.

CONCLUSION.

The facts cited thus far would seem to indicate that genius is not only abnormal, but often passes into a pathological form. But it may be asked more particularly as to what is meant by pathological and abnormal.

The modern and fundamental conception of disease is an access of normality. This statement can be supported by the highest medical authorities. Virchow^a says that substratum upon which pathological manifestations play is a repetition or reproduction of the normal mor-

^aCellular-Pathologie.

physiological stratum; its pathological character consists in this, that the stratum arises in an unfit way or at the wrong place or time; or it may depend upon an abnormal increase of the tissue elements, resulting in deviation, which becomes degeneration. Thus in pathological relations there is a preservation of specific normal characteristics; nothing new arises functionally. Pathology is in potentia in physiology. According to Perl, pathological phenomena are distinguished from the normal by their unequal and little constancy. Cohnheim affirms that physiological laws hold their validity in diseased organisms; that abnormal means a considerable deviation from the type. Ziegler^a says that disease is nothing else than a life whose manifestations deviate in part from the normal.

In saying that genius manifests the symptoms of a neurosis or psychosis, we mean an excessive nervous or cerebral action. Many forms of insanity are also manifestations of similar excessive action. Such action in one individual can give rise to most wonderful, original, and brilliant ideas, and we call it genius; in another individual it produces also wonderful and original but highly absurd thoughts, and we call it insanity. But it appears that the fundamental cause in both genius and insanity is the same; it is the excessive psychical or nervous energy.

Some of the flights of genius are most brilliant and fascinating, yet they are none the less abnormal; and when this abnormality reaches a certain degree it can become pathological. Thus Don Quixote has wonderful ideas; he is an ardent soul with brilliant thoughts superior to the opinions of his contemporaries. Yet he renders no account of real things; he is in the air; he takes his imaginations for realities, sees everything in his dream; he is without critical spirit and has little balance. Edgar Poe is full of phantasy, invention, original creations, extreme notions, regardless of critical spirit. Poe was somewhat dipsomaniac. While his writings are remarkable, yet they have elements similar to the wanderings of the insane.

Some characteristics of genius are originality, egotism, vanity, indiscretion, and lack of common sense; precocity, sterility, irritability, impetuosity, melancholy, and susceptibility to visions and dreams. These characteristics belong also to the insane. If it be said that it is cruel to compare much that we consider highest in the world with insanity, the reply is that we might as well object to classing man among the bipeds because vultures are bipeds. Any analysis of genius that may show the closest relation to insanity can not change genius itself. Faust and Hamlet remain Faust and Hamlet. Genius and great talent may be considered those forms of abnormality most beneficial to society.

STUDY OF CHILDREN.^b

It has been said the most important study of man is man. It may be added, the most important period of man's life to investigate is childhood. Children are easy to approach, their natures are open, and if anything wrong is found it may be remedied much better than later in life.

Children can be studied more scientifically than adults; they are nearer to nature, and have been less influenced by the evils of the world.

^a Allgemeine path. Anatomie.

^b For bibliography of child study, see Senate Document No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session.

While the study of children received its first impulse from Europe, it is in America that it has been developed to the greatest extent. In many of our cities school children have been measured both physically and mentally, and child-study associations have been formed in different parts of the country. While Europe regards us as a young nation and accords us little in intellectual and scientific development, it is nevertheless probable that the study of children will first become a science in our country.

NATURAL CRITICISMS.

There have been some criticisms of the study of children, but this always occurs in any new line of work, where mistakes are liable to be made, no matter how worthy the work may be. Such mistakes are usually due either to lack of experience or enthusiasm. But there can be no success in anything new without enthusiasm. Honest criticism should be welcomed in all lines of inquiry, for it serves as a rudder and may save the investigation from disaster. There can be no progress without pain.

It would be premature to make conclusions as to the benefit of some of the investigations in the domain of child study. It is a wise person who could tell in advance in new lines of work what may be valuable and what may not. There is such a thing as being too practical in our requirements of experimental work. Sometimes it is expected that the results of an investigation should be for immediate use. But this commercial or utilitarian spirit does not yield the best results, though it may bring quick returns. In early stages of all inquiries much may be done that subsequently is seen to have been unnecessary, for the real meaning of any new truth can not always be known until the discovery of other truths has been made. Many details in scientific research often make us impatient, but in all investigations it is better to have too many data than too few. A laboratory inquiry may be pursued a very long time and the result of all the labor be stated in one sentence, or the conclusion may be only negative; but this is no reason that the investigation should not have been undertaken, for it is often important to know that a thing is not true, and sometimes it is the only way to learn what methods and material to avoid. These and like objections would have applied to all sciences in their early stages. A child necessarily totters and falls before it learns to walk. It will not be long before the study of children will be considered one of the most necessary and important movements for the good of mankind.

WASHINGTON CHILDREN.

To illustrate some recent lines of work, we give a table and number of conclusions based upon a study of Washington school children.

The table shows results of an investigation of 20,000 children by the writer, and indicates some relations between mental ability, sex, nationality, sociological condition, abnormalities, and defects, as reported by the teachers. It is evident that had specialists examined the pupils the per cent of abnormalities and defects would have been much greater. But the purpose was to give simply the more obvious peculiarities and defects which any intelligent teacher by constant contact with a pupil would note.

TABLE: *Mental ability in relation to sex, nationality, sociological conditions, abnormalities, and defects of 20,000 Washington school children, as reported by the teachers.*

| | Bright. | Dull. | Average. | Sickly. | Nervous. | Defects in— | | | Convulsions. | Lazy. | Unruly. |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | | | | | Eye-sight. | Hear-ing. | Speech. | | | |
| | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> |
| All boys | 39 | 16 | 45 | 5.25 | 1.20 | 1.21 | 0.67 | 1.11 | 0.06 | 1.33 | 5.47 |
| All girls | 39 | 11 | 50 | 4.78 | .67 | 1.27 | .36 | .28 | .01 | .22 | .25 |
| Boys, American parentage | 38 | 15 | 47 | 5.48 | 1.28 | 1.36 | .68 | 1.11 | .08 | 1.48 | 5.63 |
| Girls, American parentage | 40 | 9 | 51 | 5.32 | .80 | 1.52 | .40 | .34 | .02 | .23 | .11 |
| Boys, foreign parentage | 34 | 17 | 49 | 2.13 | .19 | .58 | .19 | .87 | | .58 | 4.44 |
| Girls, foreign parentage | 32 | 16 | 52 | 2.60 | .19 | .38 | .20 | | | .10 | .96 |
| Boys, American and foreign parentage .. | 32 | 16 | 52 | 7.17 | 1.79 | 1.57 | 1.12 | 1.34 | | 1.23 | 5.60 |
| Girls, American and foreign parentage .. | 38 | 14 | 48 | 3.53 | .29 | .59 | .20 | .20 | | .29 | .39 |
| Boys, laboring classes | 31 | 17 | 52 | 3.72 | .51 | .77 | .44 | .77 | .04 | 1.09 | 4.42 |
| Girls, laboring classes | 32 | 16 | 52 | 6.47 | .86 | 1.46 | .57 | .57 | | .19 | .19 |
| Boys, nonlaboring classes | 44 | 11 | 45 | 7.37 | 2.03 | 1.97 | .94 | 1.49 | .13 | 1.91 | 7.05 |
| Girls, nonlaboring classes | 48 | | 52 | 4.66 | .83 | 1.73 | .27 | .14 | .04 | .29 | .03 |

As the citizens of Washington come from all parts of the Union, the conclusions may have more general application to America as a whole.

Beginning with the first three columns of the table we will mention a few points.

MENTAL ABILITY.

All boys and girls show the same percentage of brightness, but the girls have 5 per cent less dullness, and so in general may be said to be a little brighter than the boys. But this may be due to the fact that girls reach maturity sooner than boys.

Children (boys and girls) of American parentage are brighter than both children of foreign parentage and children of foreign and American parentage. This seems to indicate that a mixture of nationalities is not always advantageous in its effect upon the offspring.

Children of the nonlaboring (professional and mercantile) classes are superior to those of the laboring classes, indicating that the advantages of good social conditions are favorable to mental brightness.

SICKLINESS AND NERVOUSNESS.

Boys of nonlaboring classes show a much higher per cent of sickness and nervousness than boys of the laboring classes, indicating that easier social surroundings are not always conducive to health.

LAZINESS AND UNRULINESS.

While most all children, boys especially, are lazy at times, there are, nevertheless, a number of children who seem to be chronically lazy. From the table we see that the dull boys have the highest per cent of laziness (2.97). It may be true also that their indolence is one of the causes of this dullness. Comparing all boys and girls, the boys (1.33) will be seen to be much more lazy than the girls (0.22).

While, of course, there is no standard of laziness, yet there are cer-

tain children whose excessive laziness is apparent to every teacher. This also is true in regard to unruly children. As we might expect, the boys (5.47) are very much more unruly than the girls (0.25).

OTHER DEFECTS AND ABNORMALITIES.

Without drawing further conclusions from the table, it is evident that boys in general show a much higher per cent of defects than girls. Many reasons might be given, but it may be said that boys are exposed to more danger from accident and to more temptations than girls. This parallelism seems to appear in other forms; thus in prison and reformatories there are four or five of the male sex to one of the female sex. But it would seem that when there are defects in the female they are more significant and serious than in the male.

A general conclusion as to all children with abnormalities is that they are inferior not only in mental ability, but in weight, height, and circumference of head to children in general.^a

SENSIBILITY TO PAIN.^b

As pain is an important factor in life, we will illustrate how it is measured by an instrument called an algometer. The instrument, an illustration of which appears in figure 1, was designed by the writer and is called a temporal algometer, because it is pressed against the temporal muscles,^c to test the sense of pain. It consists of a brass cylinder *BF*, with a steel rod *C* running through one of the ends of the cylinder. This rod is attached to a spring, with a marker *E* on the scale *A*. This scale is graded from 0 to 4,000 grams. The brass disk *D* is about three-quarters of an inch in diameter. A piece of flannel is glued to its surface, so as to exclude the feeling of the metal when pressed against the skin, thus giving a pure pressure sensation. The whole instrument is 1 foot in length.

In using this algometer it is held in the right hand at *B* by the experimenter, who stands back of the subject and presses the disk *D* against the right temporal muscle, and then he moves in front of the subject, where he can conveniently press the disk against the left temporal muscle.

As soon as the subject feels the pressure to be in the least disagreeable the amount of pressure is read by observing the marker *E* on the scale *A*. The subject sometimes hesitates to say just when the pressure becomes in the least disagreeable, but this is part of the experiment. The purpose is to approximate as near as possible to the threshold of pain. To make any general distinction between "disagreeable," "unpleasant," "uncomfortable," "least bit painful," etc., is difficult, if not dogmatic. Estimates of feeling are of course only approximate, and we have allowed 50 grams as a margin for error.

This instrument measures approximately three things combined: The nerve, the feeling of pain, and the idea of pain. In our present state of knowledge it would be premature to say which of these three elements enters most into the measurement.

^a Based upon tables in "Experimental Study of Children," reprint from Report of Commissioner of Education for 1897-98, Washington, D. C.

^b See paper (by writer) before the American Psychological Association. "Psychological Review," March, 1899.

^c These muscles are preferred, because no trade or profession materially affects their volume. They are also conveniently located.

A common mistake is to think that the amount of pressure one can endure is desired, and, owing to this misconception, objection has been made to using the instrument on children. But just the opposite is desired. When the pressure feels the least disagreeable or uncomfortable, the subject is to say so at once. In a large number of experiments the writer has heard no child complain of being hurt; many desire to try again, to decide more exactly. Instead of being an instrument for causing pain, it may teach us more about the nature of pain and thereby help us to prevent or lessen pain.

The following conclusions are the result of experiments on different classes of children:

Sensibility to pain decreases with age.

Girls in private schools, who are generally of wealthier parents, are much more sensitive to pain than girls in the public schools. It would appear that refinements and luxuries tend to increase sensitiveness to pain. The hardihood which the great majority must experience seems advantageous. The effect of hardihood is further seen from the fact that the children of the nonlaboring classes are more sensitive to pain than those of the laboring classes. There seems to be no necessary relation between mental brightness and sensibility to pain.

Girls are more sensitive to pain than boys at all ages. This agrees with some previous experiments showing that women are more sensitive than men; but this does not necessarily refer to endurance of pain.

CIRCUMFERENCE OF HEAD.

The writer found, with the Washington children, that as circumference of head increased mental ability increased. This conclusion is in accord with the general truth held by zoologists that in animals the relative size of brain to body is an index of intelligence. It was also found that as age increases in children brightness decreases in most studies. In this connection it may be mentioned that the relative size of head to body in children is much greater than in adults.^a

RECENT RESULTS OF MEASUREMENTS OF CHILDREN.

We desire to consider some recent results of measurements of children in general. For most of these data we are indebted to American investigators. Some of the conclusions may seem somewhat fragmentary, but this is what one might expect in new fields of inquiry.

It may be as well to remark here as any place that while most of the conclusions in this paper are based upon a considerable number of cases, they must be taken in a general sense only; that is, they are true in the majority of cases. Any assertion about human beings that is, so to speak, three-fourths true and one-fourth false is valuable, for it is like much useful knowledge in the world which is only approximately true.

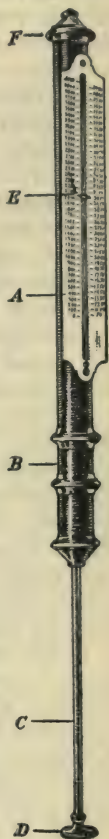


Fig. 1.—Temporal Algotometer.

^a For further details see "Experimental Study of Children," reprinted from Annual Report of Commissioner of Education for 1897-98.

SUPERIORITY OF SOME CHILDREN.

It has been found from a number of investigations in different parts of our country that children of well-to-do parents are taller and heavier for their age than children of poor parents. This is doubtless due to better food, air, and light enjoyed by those in comfortable circumstances.

Children of American-born parents are taller and heavier than those of other nationalities. One reason for this may be that American children are better adapted by heredity and education to their own country. This want of adaptability is illustrated by the belief that foreigners in a new country generally commit more crime relative to their number than natives.

A certain specialist found by percussion^a that the liver of boys of the well-to-do classes was larger than in boys of the poorer classes.

It would seem that first-born children excel later-born children in height and weight. This may be due to the greater vigor of the mother at the birth of the first child. We are reminded of a fact, mentioned later, that out of fifty great men of this century 30 per cent were the youngest sons.

In England it was found that growth degenerates as we go lower in the social scale, there being a difference of even 5 inches in height between the best and worst fed classes in the community.

An investigation of 10,000 children in Switzerland showed that children born in summer are taller for their age than those born in winter; as a majority of children in the public schools are poor, in winter their parents are forced to economize more on account of expense of heating; their rooms are also liable to be small and poorly ventilated, while in summer they are out in the fresh air; food is also cheaper and more varied. The influence of unhealthy conditions on a very young child would be much greater than when it is older and better able to resist them.

It has been said that growth is regular, and any deviation from it tends to produce disease. Hence the importance of determining what regular growth is. A large head is frequently accompanied with a contracted chest; here mental action may be slow, probably from deficient supply of purified blood. One specialist has noted that boys with small frames and very large heads are liable to be deficient in repose of character.

ABNORMALLY SHAPED HEADS.

It is a general instinctive belief in us all that when we see an irregular or poorly shaped head something must be wrong. It is true that some of the brightest people may have very poorly shaped heads, but these are exceptions to the general rule. The investigation of this question, though limited, indicates that our instinctive disfavor toward ill-shaped heads is not without some basis. It has been found that dull pupils have more irregularities in the head and face than pupils in general. This was ascertained by an experiment made on 400 schoolboys, of whom 90 had abnormally shaped heads. They all were given simple figures to add at certain limited times, those who added the most and made the fewest mistakes were found to have the

^aTapping on the surface of the body in order to learn the condition of the part beneath, by the sounds produced.

better shaped heads. One must be very careful here not to make any general conclusion from an experiment upon a relatively small number. Yet the result indicates a probability; to determine its general truth would of course require investigation of a very much larger number of persons.

RIGHT-HANDEDNESS.

It has been for a long time under discussion whether it is not better to teach right-handed children to use their left hand more, the idea being to increase symmetry and uniformity in their development. This theory seems very plausible, but recent investigation tends to show that right-handedness is natural, and that its superiority over the left hand increases with growth, also that the brightest pupils are, so to speak, more right-handed than the others. This suggests the modern tendency to become expert in one thing rather than be upon the surface of many things. The left hand does best when it supplements or helps the right hand. It is a general opinion that criminals^a have not only more left-handed people among them, but they are also more expert with both hands than people in general. Sometimes the finger muscles of the pickpocket are cut, so that he can apply either hand with greater dexterity.

DANGER AT AGE OF PUBERTY.

It has been found that girls from about 12 to 14 years of age are both taller and heavier than boys, but at no other time—that is, they excel in average height and weight. The pubertal period is the time when girls are growing very fast and so need most of their vitality to adapt themselves to new conditions of life. For this reason they should be free from care and work more than at other times; but we regret to say that both their home and school duties seem to be increased at this time, so that their health is often impaired, if not undermined. Girls seem to have less power of endurance than boys at all ages. This is more marked at the time of puberty.

It is known also that during puberty the body grows in length at the cost of chest development, and the arteries increase also in length, but their diameter is relatively little increased, so that much more work is required of the heart. If now, by any unfavorable conditions, growth is hindered or made irregular, there may be danger of the early development of consumption. At this period, also, girls are most disposed to sickliness, anæmia, headache, and other ills.

UNFAVORABLE INFLUENCE OF CITY LIFE.

It has been found that the average size of the body during school years is less and growth is slower in the city than in the country. While city bred children are usually more vivacious, they seem to have less power of endurance than children reared in the country. The pubertal period, however, comes earlier in the city, and the children are more advanced in a way, but this is regarded as a premature and unfavorable development. Country life and air are more adapted for overcoming any injurious effect of confinement in school.

^a "Criminology," by writer.

DEFECTS OF SIGHT AND HEARING.

In an examination of about 5,000 school children in Chicago, 35 per cent were found to have defective eyesight. The defectiveness increases the most during the first three years of school life, and it seems to be due to faults in school conditions.

In the tests of hearing it was found that a large number of the pupils could hear with one ear better than the other. The importance of seating such pupils on the side of the room where this best-hearing ear will be toward the teacher is evident. Defects of sight and hearing are more numerous among the dull and backward pupils. In an investigation in another city it was found that about 50 per cent of the pupils had at least one eye defective in vision.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION.

Most of the studies on large numbers of children show that in general those inferior in body are also inferior in mind. When this bodily inferiority reaches a certain point, a physical examination should be made to determine if the pupil is strong enough to go on with his studies, for however successful his mental education may be if it is at the expense of his health it will be of doubtful advantage.

This examination should extend not only to sight and hearing, but to the lungs, heart, and digestive system. If there are defects in these vital organs it certainly should be known. The teeth of many children could be saved were they attended to in time. This is especially important for the poorer classes, whose coarse food requires much mastication.

In short, a thorough physical examination of every child on entering school would be one of the greatest safeguards for its mental as well as bodily health.

CHILD STUDY.

The study of children might be thought to mean the same as what is generally called child study, but such is not the case. Child study does not usually include measurements of height, weight, lung capacity, fatigue, pain, etc., but applies more to the study of school children by means of questions which they are to answer. The answers are subsequently classified and conclusions drawn from them. A special word has been invented for child study, called paidology. This method in the study of children has been employed mostly by teachers who have sought, through series of questions to the pupil, to gain some knowledge of what is in the child's mind, and how its mind works.

It will be interesting to give the results of some of these experiments upon school children of our country.

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS.

In order to test the ideas of children as to rights, the following story was told them: "Jamie's father gave him a dog, but Jamie often forgot to feed it, and the dog cried often at the door. Then Jamie's father gave the dog to a kind little girl who lived down the street."

The children were asked: Who had the best right to the dog—the father, Jamie, or the little girl, and why?

In answering this question 70 per cent of the boys and 57 per cent of

the girls thought the little girl had the best right to the dog; 44 per cent of the children thought because Jamie had been so cruel in neglecting to feed the dog he did not deserve it. This seems to weaken the theory commonly held that children are cruel by nature.

About 25 per cent thought the father had the best right to the dog, saying that he had paid for the dog, and he was older and would take better care of it. About 8 per cent said Jamie had the best right, because when a thing is given away you can't take it back again. It was principally the older children who took this last point of view.

IGNORANCE OF CHILDREN.

The ignorance of children is illustrated in another investigation, where most of them were between the ages of 5 and 7. Fourteen per cent did not know their ages. The boys were more ignorant than the girls as to common things right about them, where knowledge is assumed. Three-fourths of the children thought the world a plane, and many described it as round, like a dollar. Wrong things were specified much more rapidly and by more children than right things, and there was much more variety of wrong things. This suggests a theory of certain criminologists that children learn evil much faster than good. Boys say it is wrong to steal, fight, kick, break windows, and get drunk, while girls are more liable to think it is wrong not to comb the hair, to get butter on one's dress, climb trees, and unfold the hands.

The city children know a little about many things, and so are liable to be more superficial than the country children, yet the city children know more about human nature.

STRENGTH OF MEMORY.

A story of some 300 words was repeated to the children, and they were to write down all they could remember after it was read. A considerable number remembered the first part of the story quite well, but very little of the latter part, showing probably the influence of fatigue. The shorter the sentences and the less unessential the words they contained, the better they were remembered. This is a practical hint to speakers and writers who desire to make more permanent impressions. The girls remembered more than the boys.

In a comparison of white with colored children, the colored children showed the best memory. Those who had good memories stood well in their classes as reported by the teachers.

CHILDREN OF GREAT MEN.

In a statistical investigation of the early life of fifty great men of the present century, it was found that while they are absent-minded, generally speaking, their memories are very strong in the things they are interested in. In childhood they seem to be more imaginative than average children. It is generally said that a great man owes his success to his mother's influence, but there are many exceptions. They were influenced much by some one person, and the mother's place was often supplied by that of an aunt or relative. The child born of parents in the prime of physical life probably has the better chance of greatness, for the average age of the fathers when the great man-child was born was about 38, and that of the mothers 30. The

average number of children in the families was 6. Eleven of the great men were only sons, and 16 youngest sons; that is, in all over 50 per cent. If it is important to study the criminal to find the causes of crime and thereby know best how to prevent or lessen it, it is perhaps more needful to study great men in order to learn those conditions and characteristics which make them great.

FEARS OF CHILDREN.

One often feels that many unnecessary fears and pains are inflicted on children by well-meaning but indiscreet parents. This is illustrated in a study of American as contrasted with London school children. The children of the poorer classes showed a marked difference in their answers to children in more comfortable conditions. The poor children are more natural in their fears, are not afraid of the dark or wild animals or the coal man or even the policeman, but their objects of dread are the upsetting of a lamp, the possibility of father or mother becoming sick. Here we see how hard conditions of life develop practical judgment. There are few evils without some good.

A study of American children shows that most fears are created by parents and servants. The leading fears are those of lightning, thunder, reptiles, strangers, the dark, death, domestic animals, disease, wild animals, water, ghosts, insects, rats, etc. In an Eastern State none were afraid of high winds, but in the West this was one of the main things to dread. In a certain State 46 of the children were in fear of being burned alive. This was evidently a result of teaching. A majority of the children feared ghosts; others did not dread them because they did not believe in them. One way to rid children of such superstitions was shown by the fact that a large number had been taught to disbelieve in them. But as we can not prevent children from hearing these superstitions from people who do place confidence in them, it has been suggested to let the children hear the truth at the same time. Harmless or even ennobling fancies might better take the place of more vulgar ones.

BLUSHING.

It would seem that fear is the real cause of most blushing, which is perhaps a relic of ancient sex fear. There is little uniformity in the way children blush. In some the blushing appears in a small spot and spreads in all directions, or it goes only upward or downward, being seen on the neck last. The fear of being noticed blushing increases it; thus one does not blush so readily in the dark. Some are forewarned that they are going to blush through tremor, weakness in the limbs; warm waves pass from feet upward; the heart seems to stop, then beats more rapidly; blood rushes upward; there is a hot glow all over, or cold all over; one feels uncomfortable or dizzy; there may be tingling in the toes or fingers; something rises in the throat; eyes smart, ears ring, face prickles; there may be pressure inside the head. Some fear they are going to be looked at; others feel foolish or confused, or as if they were going to blush. In waves of blushing it is thought there is probably an increase of flow of blood to the brain with a contraction of the arteries in other parts of the body. Then, as the blushing ceases, the blood is redistributed again through the surface of the other parts of the body, with tingling, prickling, and often sweating; sometimes there is chill, weakness, pallor, or head-

ache. Blushing occurs most at the time of puberty. Girls blush much more than boys, and when they become women this tendency remains later in life than with men.

CHILDREN'S INTERESTS.

In general children's interests lie largely in what the object is good for, or what it can do.

COLLECTING INTEREST.

The collecting interest in children is so strong that it can be called an instinct. It rises in early childhood, increases fast after six years of age, and is strongest from eight to eleven years, declining as the child grows older. What a child begins to collect seems to be more a matter of accident. The feeling is that they must collect something. This collective instinct is not a fad, but a natural desire up to eleven years of age, but if it continues on a few years it generally becomes a fad.

The collecting interest is greatest with objects of nature, as bird's eggs, shells, etc. Then comes a desire to find stamps, and cigar tags are next in degree of interest, followed by the trivial collections of sticks, glass, and buttons. Sometimes the commercial spirit shows itself in buying and trading. Imitation and rivalry are the strongest motives; another incentive is the innate desire for large numbers and great possession.

INTERESTS IN THE BIBLE.

Children before nine years of age are most interested in those parts of the New Testament which give accounts of the birth and childhood of Jesus. From nine to fourteen years they are more concerned with the Old Testament, especially in the heroic and dramatic elements there described. This is the time they can memorize verses of Scripture best.

In their youth or adolescent period, from 12 to twenty-one about, there is great interest in the Four Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles, especially in Christ and his disciples.

Children at all ages always feel more interest in persons than in objects in the Bible.

These and similar facts as to the time and way in which children show their interest may suggest how and at what age different biblical subjects should be taught them.

INFLUENCE OF TEACHER.

In order to find out the teacher's influence, a large number of persons were asked to recall their past school experiences and recollection of teachers, good and bad. It was found that pupils were most susceptible from ages eleven to nineteen, and that the good influence of a teacher does not depend upon the length of time the pupil is under his care.

The influence of a bad teacher will affect a pupil earlier than the influence of a good teacher. A teacher in a moment of indiscretion may fatally or seriously injure the pupil's future life.

There is an unconscious influence in the teacher's personality which remains a power in the pupil's character; this influence is based on what the teacher is, rather than on what he says. It was remarked

of the Earl of Chatham, "Everybody felt there was something finer in the man than anything he ever said."

The pupil is attracted by externals much more than one would suppose, as manners, dress, good looks, and voice. This suggests the importance of neatness and good taste on the part of the teacher.

MORAL EDUCATION.

No kind of education can be more important than moral. However well the pupil's mind may be trained, and however brilliant he may be, it is of little avail if there are no good moral habits instilled into him; for otherwise he might live only to become a criminal.

This question was asked of a large number of persons: What punishments or rewards have you ever had that did you good or harm?

The majority claimed to be benefited by punishment. The boys thought the effects of a good plain talk were salutary, and none had a complaint to make against a good "dressing-down." Many were grateful for having had punishment in due season. There is a time in many a boy's life when he thinks he is lord of everything, and it would seem that a good whipping is often the best way to cure this defect. Tenderness is excellent for most children, but there are certain natures on whom it is wasted, because they simply abuse it.

Conscience does not seem to be very powerful in children before the age of 9. Preaching, or advice unsought for, does not seem to do much good, while suggestion does. As to the influence of companions, it was greatest between the ages of 10 and 15. This influence is next to that of home.

The influence of parents almost all described as of a pleasant and helpful nature. The difference in moral influence due to sex of parent, that is so often dwelt upon, does not show itself. Nearly all the things to make a noble character are found in both father and mother. Moral training not only consists in moral habits, but in the development of the feelings and emotions which have their roots in the religious sentiments inculcated early in the child's life. As the parents have the heart and sympathy of the child they can make it almost what they will. If they gave as much time and patience to the nurture of their children as they do to society, business, amusement, and pets, much of the evil and crime in the world might cease. Unless children are brought up and trained well, and those provided for who have no proper home, there is little probability of making the world better. We must place the knife and fork in the child's hand, if we wish them properly held. So morality, like etiquette, must be taught through repeated acts, that become a habit. There is perhaps nothing more important to the individual, family, and country than the moral education of children.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF CHILDREN.

While the study of children has been gradually growing in importance and interest, it is only as yet at its beginning. We do not know whether there are mental and physical characteristics by which we might distinguish criminal children from other children. It is

difficult to tell whether such characteristics come more from the child's nature or more from its surroundings. If crime is mostly due to the environment, as is generally believed, and if this could be determined in the case of each child, there would be much more probability of lessening crime, for it is possible to change the child's surroundings but not its nature.

If we could know whether there were mental and physical characteristics peculiar to unruly children in school and criminal children in reformatories, or to dull school pupils and feeble-minded children, characteristics distinguishing such children from the normal child, we might foresee special dangers to these children, and thus protect many from temptations and conditions that otherwise would ruin them. Such knowledge as this can only be gained by a patient scientific study of large numbers of children of all classes.^a

There has been much investigation of school children, but as the subject is in its experimental stage and methods are new, criticism has naturally been aroused. This is the history of all new lines of inquiry that take up the humanities. Some imagine that the children might be harmed by instruments used upon them, or their rights interfered with, but nothing could be farther from the truth. The study of children is simply to gain knowledge about them, and if knowledge is power, it will be power for their good.

OPPOSITION TO PSYCHO-PHYSICAL RESEARCH.

Rigid methods of research, which have been confined mostly to the sciences, should be applied to man. It is only recently that more exact methods have been used in the investigation of the mind. Opposition and ridicule came not only from the ultraconservative people, who are usually opposed to all new things, but from extreme doctrinaires. The day has come when opinion, theory, or speculation must give way to first-hand knowledge. The value of opinion depends upon such knowledge, an ounce of which is worth a pound of theory. Much of this opposition also may be due to the mistaken idea that psycho-physical studies tend to materialism, or are liable to undermine morality and religion; but such unfounded opposition is gradually ceasing, and where it does exist, it is due either to ignorance or to mistakes that may often occur in the introduction of new methods.

NECESSITY OF INSTRUMENTS OF PRECISION.

A thorough study of any human being can not be made without instruments of precision. Such an investigation of living men is one of the most recent tendencies of science. Instruments of precision have been employed more extensively, perhaps, in the study of the abnormal, as illustrated in criminology, but it is time they were used in the investigation of normal man.

An instrumental method of inquiry is a more exact way of ascertaining the effects of mental, moral, and physical forces upon the body, of many of which we are unconscious. The facts thus obtained bear the closest relation to new questions in the development and education of man.

LIMITATION OF THE SENSES.

The diurnal rotation of the earth, the distance of the stars, and the weight of the air are not appreciated by our senses, and often may seem contradictory to them. The sensations of cold and heat are not absolute, but merely relative to the temperature of our bodies, frequently misleading us. The illusions of sight, hearing, and touch point to the conclusion, accepted by modern psychology, that our ideas of the external world are the result of a long and unconscious education of the senses.

Science in its efforts to seek the truth has a special difficulty to contend against—it is the defectiveness or limitation of our senses. Instruments of precision are for the purpose of correcting these defects by increasing the scope of the senses, so that, when truth may be found, it may be described more fully and determined more definitely.

In ancient times there were instruments to measure the weight and height, etc., or what is called the static condition. Subsequently dynamic movements, electric currents, variations of temperature, etc., were studied, but our senses were too slow and confused to determine these conditions, so instruments were necessary to measure the very small in time and in motion.

PRELIMINARY EDUCATION FOR STUDY IN A PSYCHO-PHYSICAL LABORATORY.

It is difficult to recommend to students, after graduating from college, just what studies to pursue preliminary to taking up psychophysics, which touches upon so many different departments of knowledge. The writer will venture a few remarks and suggestions.

Physiological psychology, or psycho-physics,^a is no misnomer for modern psychology, because it is as much, if not more, physical than psychical. That, consequently, a somewhat extensive knowledge of physiology is a *sine qua non* for the thoroughly trained modern psychologist goes without saying; and this is as true whether there be sympathy or not with the modern view, for in the latter case the psychologist can hardly avoid discussing some of the results of physiology, and such discussions, to be trustworthy and valuable, must be based upon knowledge. And here is not meant mere book knowledge, but experimental knowledge gained in the physiological laboratory; otherwise when one speaks of sensations, reflex action, afferent and efferent nerves, etc., it is difficult to understand how he can have any adequate insight into the objective reality of these phenomena. It is not intended that any large amount of time be required for purely physiological laboratory work. A term's course, say, of six hours a week, might be the minimum. In this case it is assumed that the student has a general knowledge of human and comparative physiology.

If the above requirements are necessary for one who proposes to study psycho-physical questions, it may be inquired further as to anatomical knowledge. That a proper conception of physiology is not possible without anatomy is so obvious as to be commonplace. A general dissection of the body and special dissection of the sense organs and brain, while it would require more time than the physiological

^aThe writer prefers this term to "physiological psychology," which deals often with that which is not physiological, but pathological.

course, would be well worth the extra trouble, since it is preliminary foundation work, and is also necessary for the investigation of pathological clinical cases, some of which are of the highest importance for the psycho-physicist. For this and other reasons an elementary course in practical histology is necessary. Thus it is not clear how any student without practical knowledge of coarser and finer anatomy can study and discuss intelligently questions concerning cerebral localization, cranial and spinal nerves, spinal column, medulla oblongata, etc. A study of medicine in the laboratory and clinic sufficient to gain a medical way of looking at things is a desideratum. Such training is also very valuable for students of criminology or other patho-social subjects.

It may be objected that many of the facts learned in such a course of study would not be of direct utility, but this could be urged against almost any course of study. The value of such negative knowledge consists in serving as a sort of ballast in aiding the student in avoiding mistakes.

It may be said that if practical courses in anatomy and histology are requisites, why not also similar courses in pathology and psychiatry. It is true that these would be valuable, but there must be a limit. Perhaps the student could take up individual pathological cases as they came in the course of his work, provided he has the physiological and anatomical knowledge of normal man before mentioned. It is assumed that the specialist in psycho-physics will read the writings of specialists in physiology, anatomy, and pathology when they treat of topics that bear directly on his own studies. To read such literature, appreciate the points of discussion, and make decisions as to weight of evidence requires at least a practical elementary knowledge of the subjects.

But it may be objected that, with accurate book learning and good diagrams, one can gain sufficient insight without going to the trouble of taking the practical courses. This objection is perhaps more æsthetical than rational, for many do not care for or are averse to dissection. It is a well-known difficulty, common to medical schools, to obtain faithfulness in dissection. There seems to be a natural disinclination, not only of the nature of dread or disgust that may appear on first entering the dissecting room, but another feeling, that is easier experienced than described. The psycho-physicist who has no medical training is very liable to have a strong disinclination to practical work in anatomy, even if he believes in its utility and necessity. Then there is sometimes the feeling that it is so much easier and saves time to sit quietly in one's own room and study the books and diagrams.

It may be said that many good workers in psycho-physics have never had this preliminary training. This is true, but they have succeeded in spite of this fact. As is well known, many students of philosophy, having become dissatisfied with its methods and results, have turned their attention to experimental psychology, and have neither time nor opportunity to return to preliminary work, which they could have done had they known beforehand the subsequent direction of their studies.

The fact that the majority of leaders in the department of physiological psychology in Europe were previously physicians or students of medicine indicates the direction which the preliminary training in psycho-physics should take.

SUSCEPTIBILITY TO DISEASE AND PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT IN COLLEGE WOMEN.^a

It is unnecessary to say that the conclusions drawn from the tables below are only tentative. To confirm or to limit such conclusions a much larger number of facts would be necessary.

The tables are given in averages.^b

The measurements of weight, lung capacity, height, and strength were made wholly independent of the medical examination. The number of students in all is 1,486. When the numbers for any age are very small, their averages are omitted in the tables.

CONCLUSIONS.

Comparing those who report no diseases (Table I) with those having had one or more diseases (Table II), we find that those with no diseases are less in weight but greater in height and lung capacity, and about equal in strength to those having had one or more diseases. As far as these data go, they seem to indicate that strength and weight are not necessarily signs of health, or rather of lack of susceptibility to disease.

The only difference between those having any disease (Table II) and those having constitutional diseases is that the latter are shorter in stature than the former, but in strength, weight, and lung capacity there is no marked difference.

Those having had typhoid fever (Table III) show a superiority in lung capacity and strength, but are inferior in weight and slightly so in height to those having diseases in general (Table II). The typhoid cases, compared with all cases of specific infectious diseases, are inferior in weight, height, and strength. This confirms to a certain extent the remark of Hildebrand, that delicate slender people are much more subject to typhoid fever than to consumption.

The cases of infectious diseases (Table IV) are distinctly superior in weight, lung capacity, height, and strength to those having diseases in general (Table II).

On the other hand, those having hereditary diseases (Table VII) are inferior in weight and slightly so in height to those having had diseases in general (Table II). If we compare the cases of hereditary diseases directly with those of infectious diseases (IV), the contrast is still more marked, showing the hereditary cases to be inferior in weight, lung capacity, height, and strength to the cases of infectious diseases.

Comparing cases of scarlet fever (Table XIII) with those of infectious diseases (Table IV) in general, the only noticeable difference is that the former are inferior in height to the latter.

Diseases of the digestive system (Table VI) show cases of less weight and lung capacity but of greater height than diseases in general (Table II).

Those with insufficient respiration (Table XI) have less weight, but, contrary to expectation, greater lung capacity and height than those with disease in general (Table II).

Cases of heart murmurs (Table XII) show greater weight, lung capacity, height, and strength to cases of disease in general (Table II).

Those with habitual headache (Table IX) are inferior in weight, height, lung capacity, and strength to those with disease in general (Table II).

^a Reprinted from the Philadelphia Medical Journal, April 20, 1901.

^b The data from which the tables are made were kindly furnished by the professor of physical culture and the resident physician in one of our woman's colleges.

Tables of susceptibility to disease and physical development of college women.

ALL.

| No. | Nearest age. | Weight. | Lung capacity. | Height. | Strength of— | | |
|-----|--------------|-------------|----------------|------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | | | | Arms. | Right hand. | Left hand. |
| | | <i>Lbs.</i> | <i>Cu. in.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> |
| 1 | 15 | 102 | 175 | 160 | 23 | 26 | 22 |
| 9 | 16 | 122 | 171 | 162 | 27 | 26 | 24 |
| 126 | 17 | 118 | 156 | 166 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 462 | 18 | 118 | 164 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 468 | 19 | 116 | 160 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 21 |
| 260 | 20 | 117 | 162 | 161 | 27 | 24 | 21 |
| 90 | 21 | 112 | 169 | 160 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 32 | 22 | 113 | 165 | 160 | 27 | 24 | 21 |
| 20 | 23 | 112 | 151 | 160 | 26 | 24 | 21 |
| 12 | 24 | 127 | 167 | 163 | 29 | 26 | 23 |
| 3 | 25 | 107 | 165 | 166 | 22 | 20 | 20 |
| 2 | 26 | 107 | 127 | 160 | 34 | 26 | 25 |
| 1 | 28 | 117 | 160 | 163 | 19 | 31 | 27 |

TABLE I.—THOSE REPORTING NO DISEASES.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 41 | 17 | 118 | 163 | 162 | 27 | 22 | 20 |
| 178 | 18 | 119 | 166 | 162 | 27 | 24 | 21 |
| 128 | 19 | 115 | 168 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 73 | 20 | 117 | 164 | 164 | 28 | 25 | 22 |
| 10 | 21 | 112 | 165 | 161 | 24 | 21 | 19 |
| 10 | 23 | 116 | 167 | 159 | 26 | 26 | 23 |

TABLE II.—ALL HAVING HAD ONE OR MORE DISEASES.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 61 | 17 | 119 | 168 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 226 | 18 | 118 | 162 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 280 | 19 | 116 | 161 | 160 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 138 | 20 | 118 | 162 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 51 | 21 | 113 | 157 | 160 | 27 | 22 | 20 |
| 11 | 22 | 109 | 159 | 160 | 26 | 24 | 22 |

TABLE III.—TYPHOID FEVER.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 17 | 18 | 117 | 169 | 160 | 28 | 23 | 20 |
| 26 | 19 | 117 | 164 | 162 | 26 | 23 | 20 |
| 11 | 20 | 117 | 171 | 160 | 27 | 22 | 21 |

TABLE IV.—SPECIFIC INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 28 | 17 | 119 | 163 | 159 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 59 | 18 | 118 | 167 | 163 | 28 | 22 | 20 |
| 106 | 19 | 123 | 176 | 161 | 28 | 25 | 21 |
| 49 | 20 | 120 | 169 | 162 | 30 | 23 | 21 |
| 28 | 21 | 114 | 169 | 161 | 29 | 24 | 21 |

TABLE V.—CONSTITUTIONAL DISEASES.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 31 | 18 | 119 | 161 | 151 | 26 | 24 | 21 |
| 22 | 19 | 120 | 164 | 163 | 25 | 24 | 20 |
| 32 | 20 | 118 | 160 | 161 | 25 | 23 | 20 |

TABLE VI.—DISEASES OF DIGESTIVE SYSTEM.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 1 | 16 | 158 | 220 | 167 | 33 | 28 | 18 |
| 18 | 17 | 117 | 165 | 162 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 59 | 18 | 120 | 164 | 162 | 27 | 24 | 21 |
| 77 | 19 | 145 | 151 | 160 | 25 | 23 | 20 |
| 42 | 20 | 116 | 155 | 161 | 26 | 23 | 20 |
| 17 | 21 | 112 | 167 | 161 | 26 | 23 | 20 |

Table of susceptibility to disease and physical development of college women—Continued.

TABLE VII.—HEREDITARY DISEASES.

| No. | Nearest age. | Weight. | Lung capacity. | Height. | Strength of— | | |
|-----|--------------|-------------|----------------|------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | | | | Arms. | Right hand. | Left hand. |
| | | <i>Lbs.</i> | <i>Cu. in.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> |
| 22 | 17 | 118 | 157 | 160 | 28 | 22 | 20 |
| 56 | 18 | 116 | 168 | 161 | 25 | 23 | 20 |
| 60 | 19 | 119 | 163 | 161 | 26 | 23 | 21 |
| 40 | 20 | 112 | 163 | 159 | 25 | 22 | 20 |

TABLE VIII.—DISEASES OF NERVOUS SYSTEM.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 18 | 18 | 120 | 162 | 164 | 28 | 25 | 21 |
| 59 | 19 | 115 | 160 | 160 | 26 | 24 | 22 |
| 12 | 20 | 113 | 162 | 162 | 25 | 22 | 20 |

TABLE IX.—HABITUAL HEADACHE.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 29 | 18 | 115 | 162 | 160 | 26 | 23 | 21 |
| 46 | 19 | 113 | 155 | 160 | 24 | 22 | 20 |
| 17 | 20 | 113 | 171 | 160 | 26 | 20 | 19 |
| 11 | 21 | 111 | 147 | 158 | 24 | 23 | 22 |

TABLE X.—DISEASES OF RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 18 | 17 | 121 | 164 | 162 | 26 | 22 | 20 |
| 57 | 18 | 120 | 158 | 161 | 26 | 24 | 21 |
| 84 | 19 | 114 | 159 | 160 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 48 | 20 | 119 | 163 | 161 | 27 | 23 | 22 |
| 12 | 21 | 111 | 154 | 160 | 26 | 22 | 19 |

TABLE XI.—INSUFFICIENT RESPIRATION.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 36 | 17 | 118 | 170 | 163 | 27 | 22 | 21 |
| 95 | 18 | 116 | 164 | 162 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 119 | 19 | 116 | 162 | 161 | 27 | 22 | 20 |
| 52 | 20 | 116 | 164 | 160 | 27 | 23 | 20 |
| 32 | 21 | 112 | 162 | 160 | 27 | 23 | 21 |

TABLE XII.—HAVING HEART MURMURS.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 21 | 17 | 125 | 180 | 164 | 24 | 23 | 20 |
| 61 | 18 | 117 | 167 | 162 | 28 | 23 | 21 |
| 62 | 19 | 117 | 166 | 162 | 28 | 24 | 20 |
| 23 | 20 | 122 | 170 | 168 | 27 | 24 | 22 |
| 18 | 21 | 112 | 175 | 162 | 26 | 23 | 21 |

TABLE XIII.—SCARLET FEVER.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 11 | 17 | 122 | 166 | 158 | 30 | 23 | 20 |
| 19 | 18 | 118 | 166 | 164 | 27 | 22 | 20 |
| 22 | 19 | 120 | 170 | 161 | 26 | 24 | 21 |
| 10 | 20 | 120 | 161 | 162 | 30 | 26 | 23 |

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MEASUREMENTS OF CHATTANOOGA SCHOOL CHILDREN.

In another investigation an account was given of the measurements of Washington school children taken by me, and also a history of the measurements of school children in this country and in Europe.

We shall add here a few further measurements^a of school children of Chattanooga, Tenn. We regret the number is not larger.

We have given some conclusions especially as indicating a purely experimental stage of investigation. It might be asked, for instance, what relation could there be between color of eyes and weight and strength, etc. We can not say, but if we had larger numbers further subdivisions could be made, and other factors that might have influence excluded, until finally the relation, if real, could be determined.

To neglect every relation that a priori seems improbable is not consistent with the history of investigation, for it has happened that some of the most unsuspected relations have turned out through further inquiry to be of great importance.

Chattanooga school children.^b—In this study of the Chattanooga children is recorded one of the first, if not the first, measurement of school children in the South.

Measurements were taken of weight, height, strength, and sensibility to pain. The teachers reported also as to whether the pupil was bright, dull, or average in general, and as to the standing of the pupil in particular studies. In order that a fair estimate as to the ability of the pupil might be made, a pupil was marked average whenever there was any doubt.

The date of birth, order of birth, and color of hair and eyes were also noted. The children were divided into blondes, mediums, and brunettes. If such characteristics should be related closely to any of the other data, it might in this way be ascertained.

Chattanooga schoolgirls.—Schoolgirls in Chattanooga are slightly taller and heavier for most ages than schoolgirls in Washington. (Tables 1 and 2.)

TABLE 1.—Washington school girls.^b

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> |
| 754 | 8 | 47 | 49 | 833 | 14 | 60 | 93 |
| 883 | 9 | 49 | 54 | 655 | 15 | 62 | 100 |
| 939 | 10 | 51 | 58 | 450 | 16 | 62 | 105 |
| 931 | 11 | 53 | 64 | 323 | 17 | 63 | 110 |
| 876 | 12 | 56 | 73 | 151 | 18 | 63 | 111 |
| 966 | 13 | 58 | 82 | | | | |

^aSee Experimental Study of Children.

The summer born are slightly less in height and strength and have less sensibility to pain than the winter born for most ages. (Tables 3 and 4.)

Mentally considered (Table 5).—The firstborn are slightly superior to the second born. Those born in winter are superior to those born in summer.

There is no special difference between blondes and brunettes.

Chattanooga schoolboys.—The Chattanooga boys are superior in weight and height to the boys in Washington (Tables 6 and 7). This

^aA general measurement blank for children will be found in Senate Document, No. 400, Fifty-seventh Congress.

^bProf. William E. Ashcroft and Supt. Dr. A. T. Barrett kindly made the measurements.

accords with the general impression that Southern men are taller than Northern men.

Those born in summer are very slightly inferior in weight, height, and strength to those born in winter (Tables 8 and 9). This does not agree (as in the case of girls above, Tables 3 and 4) with Combe's results in Switzerland, who found children born in summer to be taller for their age. As the superiority of winter children in Chattanooga is very slight, it may be due either to the relatively small number measured or to difference of climate, it being severer in Switzerland during the winter than in Chattanooga.

Mentally considered.—The firstborn boys are slightly superior mentally to both the second born and later born (Table 10). Boas found the firstborn to excel the later born in both stature and weight. This coincides with results of most investigations, showing that superiority of body usually goes with superiority of mind. Thus the children of the nonlaboring (professional and mercantile) classes of Washington not only show a higher percentage of mental ability, but are physically superior to those of the laboring classes.

TABLE 2.—Chattanooga school children, white girls.

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Strength of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temple. | Left temple. |
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 10 | 8 | 47 | | 11 | 9 | | |
| 21 | 9 | 50 | | 13 | 11 | | |
| 30 | 10 | 52 | | 14 | 13 | (5) 2,540 | (5) 2,830 |
| 30 | 11 | 54 | (11) 70 | 14 | 13 | (14) 2,315 | (14) 2,415 |
| 49 | 12 | 54 | (30) 77 | 18 | 16 | (31) 2,520 | (31) 2,590 |
| 43 | 13 | 58 | 92 | 20 | 18 | (26) 2,550 | (26) 2,445 |
| 44 | 14 | 61 | 100 | 21 | 19 | 2,687 | 2,642 |
| 35 | 15 | 62 | 101 | 23 | 21 | 2,460 | 2,463 |
| 13 | 16 | 62 | 101 | 23 | 20 | 2,653 | 2,561 |

TABLE 3.—Summer born.

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Strength of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temple. | Left temple. |
| | | <i>Ft. In.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 4 | 8 | 3 9 | | 10 | 8 | | |
| 8 | 9 | 4 5 | | 12 | 12 | | |
| 13 | 10 | 4 4 | | 14 | 13 | (1) 2,400 | (1) 8,500 |
| 14 | 11 | 4 6 | (4) 71 | 15 | 14 | (4) 2,675 | (4) 2,537 |
| 27 | 12 | 4 9 | (15) 73 | 17 | 15 | (14) 2,725 | (14) 2,907 |
| 26 | 13 | 4 11 | 91 | 20 | 18 | 2,633 | 2,561 |
| 23 | 14 | 5 2 | 99 | 21 | 19 | 2,755 | 2,577 |
| 16 | 15 | 5 2 | 99 | 22 | 21 | 2,604 | 2,675 |
| 8 | 16 | 5 2 | 100 | 24 | 20 | 2,368 | 2,275 |
| 3 | 17 | 5 2 | 117 | 20 | 19 | 2,532 | 3,016 |

TABLE 4.—*Winter born.*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Strength of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temple. | Left temple. |
| 6 | 8 | <i>Ft. In.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 13 | 9 | 4 1 | | 12 | 10 | | |
| 15 | 10 | 4 2 | | 12 | 11 | | |
| | | 4 5 | | 14 | 12 | 2,775 | 2,725 |
| 15 | 11 | | (7) | | | (9) | (9) |
| 22 | 12 | 4 6 | 69 | 14 | 14 | 2,266 | 2,366 |
| | | 4 9 | 82 | 19 | 17 | 2,351 | 2,329 |
| 17 | 13 | | (6) | | | (8) | (8) |
| 21 | 14 | 4 11 | 82 | 20 | 18 | 2,362 | 2,193 |
| 18 | 15 | 5 1 | 97 | 21 | 19 | 2,611 | 2,712 |
| 5 | 16 | 5 3 | 105 | 23 | 21 | 2,306 | 2,236 |
| | | 5 3 | 103 | 24 | 20 | 3,110 | 3,020 |

TABLE 5.—*Chattanooga public schools, girls.*

| No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. | No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. |
|-----|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> |
| 89 | First born..... | 28 | 65 | 7 | 135 | Winter born..... | 34 | 60 | 6 |
| 59 | Second born..... | 28 | 61 | 11 | 124 | Blondes..... | 27 | 62 | 11 |
| 127 | Later born..... | 34 | 51 | 15 | 81 | Medium..... | 34 | 53 | 13 |
| 139 | Summer born..... | 29 | 55 | 16 | 56 | Brunettes..... | 30 | 55 | 15 |

TABLE 6.—*Washington boys^a (white).*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> |
| 787 | 8 | 48 | 51 | 926 | 13 | 57 | 79 |
| 878 | 9 | 50 | 56 | 784 | 14 | 59 | 88 |
| 930 | 10 | 52 | 61 | 528 | 15 | 62 | 101 |
| 862 | 11 | 53 | 66 | 345 | 16 | 64 | 114 |
| 986 | 12 | 55 | 73 | | | | |

^aSee Experimental Study of Children.TABLE 7.—*Chattanooga school children, white boys.*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> |
| 10 | 8 | 49 | | | | | (11) |
| 17 | 9 | 15 | | 47 | 13 | 57 | 89 |
| | | | (6) | 35 | 14 | 60 | 95 |
| 28 | 10 | 52 | 69 | | | | (12) |
| 39 | 11 | 54 | 77 | 16 | 15 | 63 | 107 |
| | | | (8) | 12 | 16 | 63 | 115 |
| 35 | 12 | 57 | 79 | | | | |

TABLE 8.—*Winter born.*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | | Average weight. | Strength of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temple. | Left temple. |
| | | <i>Ft.</i> | <i>In.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 5 | 8 | 4 | 1 | | 14 | 11 | | |
| 4 | 9 | 4 | 2 | | 14 | 12 | | |
| | | | | (5) | | | (5) | (5) |
| 15 | 10 | 4 | 5 | 71 | 16 | 13 | 3,090 | 3,080 |
| | | | | (7) | | | (10) | (10) |
| 25 | 11 | 4 | 6 | 77 | 23 | 19 | 2,783 | 3,072 |
| | | | | (10) | | | | |
| 22 | 12 | 4 | 8 | 78 | 21 | 20 | 2,581 | 2,509 |
| 23 | 13 | 4 | 10 | 92 | 24 | 20 | 2,659 | 2,746 |
| 18 | 14 | 5 | 1 | 98 | 27 | 25 | 2,443 | 2,511 |
| 8 | 15 | 5 | 4 | 106 | 28 | 27 | 2,868 | 3,162 |
| 4 | 16 | 5 | 4 | 105 | 33 | 28 | 2,575 | 2,612 |

TABLE 9.—*Summer born.*

| No. of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | | Average weight. | Strengthen of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|----------------|--------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temple. | Left temple. |
| | | <i>ft.</i> | <i>in.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Kilo.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 5 | 8 | 4 | 1 | | 14 | 13 | | |
| | | | | | | | (1) | (1) |
| 12 | 9 | 4 | 3 | | 14 | 13 | 2,850 | 2,700 |
| | | | | | | | (1) | (1) |
| 13 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 16 | 15 | | 3,350 | 2,900 |
| 13 | 11 | 4 | 6 | | 19 | 17 | 2,733 | 2,333 |
| | | | | (6) | | | | |
| 12 | 12 | | | 80 | 19 | 17 | 2,566 | 2,894 |
| 21 | 13 | 4 | 10 | 87 | 21 | 21 | 3,064 | 3,097 |
| 17 | 14 | 4 | 11 | 92 | 24 | 23 | 2,890 | 2,950 |
| | | | | (5) | | | | |
| 8 | 15 | 5 | 2 | 103 | 30 | 28 | 3,016 | 3,091 |
| 8 | 16 | 5 | 3 | 108 | 34 | 33 | 2,512 | 2,415 |

TABLE 10.—*Boys.*

| No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. | No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. |
|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> |
| 65 | First born | 33 | 60 | 17 | 124 | Winter born | 37 | 44 | 19 |
| 59 | Second born | 35 | 54 | 11 | 93 | Blondes | 38 | 53 | 9 |
| 105 | Later born | 32 | 56 | 12 | 91 | Medium | 30 | 54 | 16 |
| 108 | Summer born | 29 | 56 | 15 | 50 | Brunettes | 30 | 52 | 8 |

Those born in winter are slightly superior mentally to those born in summer. (Table 10.)

Puberty and sensibility to pain.—Both boys and girls (Table 11) are slightly less sensitive to pain after puberty than before. It was found in the study of the Washington children^a that they were more sensitive to locality and heat on the skin before puberty than after. Thus it seems probable that our senses in general are more acute before than after puberty. This accords with the general conclusion that sensibility to pain decreases with age.^b

^a Experimental Study of Children, page 1007.

^b *Ib.*, page 1113.

TABLE 11.—*Puberty and sensibility to pain, Chattanooga children.*

| Puberty. | Number of persons. | Sensibility to pain. | |
|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Right temporal muscle (pressure). | Left temporal muscle (pressure). |
| Boys: | | Grams. | Grams. |
| Before puberty | 26 | 2,820 | 2,837 |
| After puberty | 105 | 2,852 | 2,881 |
| Girls: | | | |
| Before puberty | 50 | 2,480 | 2,584 |
| After puberty | 117 | 2,589 | 2,543 |

TABLE 12.—*Colored boys, Chattanooga.*

| No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. | No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. |
|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> |
| 131 | First born..... | 41 | 40 | 19 | 27 | Black skin | 33 | 48 | 19 |
| 69 | Second born | 37 | 38 | 25 | 56 | Brown skin | 33 | 48 | 19 |
| 123 | Later born | 37 | 56 | 7 | 156 | Light brown skin .. | 36 | 44 | 20 |
| 66 | Summer born | 42 | 31 | 27 | 174 | Yellow skin | 33 | 46 | 21 |
| 193 | Winter born..... | 34 | 45 | 21 | | | | | |

TABLE 13.—*Colored girls, Chattanooga.*

| No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. | No. | | Bright. | Average. | Dull. |
|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|--------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | | | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> | <i>Per ct.</i> |
| 127 | First born..... | 33 | 51 | 16 | 45 | Black skin | 40 | 44 | 16 |
| 88 | Second born | 39 | 44 | 14 | 87 | Brown skin | 41 | 45 | 14 |
| 199 | Later born | 33 | 50 | 17 | 207 | Dark brown skin .. | 33 | 46 | 21 |
| 62 | Summer born | 30 | 45 | 25 | 220 | Yellow skin | 35 | 54 | 11 |
| 239 | Winter born..... | 31 | 53 | 16 | | | | | |

Colored boys.—The first born are slightly superior mentally to both the second and later born. (Table 12.) There appears to be no relation between different degrees of color of skin and mental ability among the boys.

Colored girls.—The second-born colored girls show a slightly greater mental ability than both the first born and later born. (Table 13.)

The summer born show a slight superiority mentally to the winter born. (Table 13.)

Those with light skin (light brown and yellow) show the lowest percentage of mental ability. (Table 13.) This is not what we would expect from general impressions. But general impressions are sometimes based on conspicuous exceptions.

The temple algometer used in the pain experiments was designed by me and consists of a brass cylinder with a steel rod running through one of the ends of the cylinder. This rod is attached to a spring, and there is a marker on a scale; this scale is graded from 0 to 4,000 grams. There is at one extremity a brass disk 15 millimeters in diameter; a piece of flannel is glued to this surface, so as to exclude the feeling of the metal when pressed against the skin, thus giving a pure pressure sensation. The whole instrument is 30 centimeters in length. In using this algometer it is held in the right hand near the beginning of the cylinders, by the experimenter, who stands back of the subject and presses the disk against the right temporal muscle, and then he

moves in front of the subject, where he can conveniently press the disk against the left temporal muscle.

So soon as the subject feels the pressure to be in the least disagreeable the amount of pressure is read by observing the marker on the scale. The subject sometimes hesitates to say just when the pressure becomes in the least disagreeable, but this is part of the experiment. The purpose is to approximate as near as possible the threshold of pain.

ME. UREMENTS OF GIRLS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS.^a

It is an anomalous fact that children have been studied less than plants and animals. It is only of late that the study of children has increased in importance and interest; it is therefore in an embryonic stage, methods are new, and naturally much criticism has arisen. Some have thought that the children might be injured by using instruments upon them, or that their rights might be infringed upon, but such fears are due either to ignorance or a vivid imagination.

It is comparatively recent that scientific method has been applied to the mental side of man. That mind and feeling could be measured quantitatively was once generally doubted or ridiculed; but such opposition has ceased almost entirely. Opinion and speculation are often entitled to as much respect as facts, but when they go so far as to oppose or ignore facts, they create a suspicion of their own weakness. The value of opinion varies according to first-hand knowledge.

There is a somewhat prevalent idea that investigation of mind tends to weaken the basis of morality; but there is very little evidence of this. Morality is more a matter of habit and early training. Some of the worst criminals are theoretically sound in their doctrines, but they have not formed good habits, and so are in contradiction with themselves.

Children in some respects are better for investigation than adults, for they are nearer to nature and have been less influenced by the conditions of the world. The study of children has also a more practical bearing, for there is more probability of remedying defects than in the case of adults.

We give herewith some recent measurements of young women in private schools and of university students. The numbers of individuals are not as large as one could desire, but we trust that others will take up the work, increasing the number, so that finally the results of such studies may come to possess a high degree of certainty.

TABLE I.—*Washington schoolgirls.*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> |
| 754 | 8 | 47 | 49 |
| 883 | 9 | 49 | 54 |
| 939 | 10 | 51 | 58 |
| 931 | 11 | 53 | 64 |
| 876 | 12 | 56 | 73 |
| 966 | 13 | 58 | 82 |
| 833 | 14 | 60 | 93 |
| 655 | 15 | 62 | 100 |
| 450 | 16 | 62 | 105 |
| 323 | 17 | 63 | 110 |
| 151 | 18 | 63 | 111 |

^a From the Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, Vol. CXLV, No. 5, pp. 127-129, August 1, 1901.

MEASUREMENTS OF GIRLS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Comparing girls in private schools with Washington and Chattanooga schoolgirls, we find them heavier, taller, much stronger, and much more sensitive to pain than girls in public schools (Tables I, II, and III). It would appear that the comforts, refinements and perhaps luxuries of modern civilization, while beneficial to physical development, tend to increase sensitiveness to pain. This accords with our previous measurements of Washington school children, where it was shown that children of the nonlaboring classes (mercantile and professional) were superior in circumference of head, in height, sitting height and weight, but more sensitive to heat and locality on the skin than children of the laboring classes; that is, a superior physical development usually seems to be accompanied with greater acuteness of the sensibilities.

TABLE II.—*Chattanooga schoolgirls.*

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average height. | Average weight. | Strength of— | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Right temporal muscle. | Left temporal muscle. |
| | | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Pounds.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 10..... | 8 | 47 | | 11 | 9 | | |
| 21..... | 9 | 50 | | 13 | 11 | | |
| 30..... | 10 | 52 | | 14 | 13 | (5) | (5) |
| 30..... | 11 | 54 | (11) * | 14 | 13 | (14) | (14) |
| 49..... | 12 | 54 | (30) | 18 | 16 | 2,315 | 2,415 |
| 43..... | 13 | 58 | (23) | 20 | 18 | (31) | (31) |
| 44..... | 14 | 61 | 92 | 21 | 19 | 2,520 | 2,590 |
| 35..... | 15 | 62 | 100 | 23 | 21 | (26) | (26) |
| 13..... | 16 | 62 | 101 | 23 | 20 | 2,550 | 2,445 |
| | | | | | | 2,687 | 2,642 |
| | | | | | | 2,460 | 2,463 |
| | | | | | | 2,653 | 2,561 |

* Figures in parentheses designate number from which average is made.

TABLE III.—*Girls in private schools.* *

| Number of pupils. | Nearest age. | Average weight. | Average height. | Strength of— | | Cephalic index. | | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|--------|---------|----------------------|----------------|
| | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | Dolicho. | Messo. | Brachy. | Right temporal. | Left temporal. |
| | | <i>Lbs.</i> | <i>Inches.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | <i>Kilos.</i> | | | | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 3..... | 10 | 61 | | 14 | 12 | 1 | 2 | | 625 | 565 |
| 6..... | 11 | 71 | | 17 | 16 | | 5 | 1 | 708 | 578 |
| 4..... | 12 | 77 | 57 | 23 | 21 | | | 4 | 525 | 487 |
| 11..... | 13 | 94 | 62 | 31 | 27 | 1 | 9 | 1 | 730 | 716 |
| 6..... | 14 | 106 | 63 | 37 | 34 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 868 | 933 |
| 19..... | 15 | 115 | 64 | 38 | 34 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 773 | 753 |
| 23..... | 16 | 117 | 64 | 45 | 41 | 2 | 12 | 8 | 934 | 1,004 |
| 14..... | 17 | 114 | 65 | 45 | 43 | 3 | 8 | 3 | 1,317 | 1,353 |
| 9..... | 18 | 113 | 65 | 54 | 46 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 1,250 | 1,905 |
| 3..... | 19 | 121 | 64 | 61 | 58 | | 2 | 1 | 900 | 900 |

* These measurements were kindly made for the writer by Misses A. B. Jones and A. E. Palmer, teachers in the schools.

Girls in private schools are less sensitive to locality on the skin, but more sensitive to pain before puberty than after puberty (Table IV). It is difficult to say why this sense of locality is less before puberty, as the difference is well marked. There seems to be a distinct difference here between the pain sensibility and the locality sensibility.

Compared with girls in Washington schools, girls in private schools are, contrary to expectation, much less sensitive, both before and after puberty, to locality on the skin (Table IV).

TABLE IV.—*Sensibilities of girls in private and public schools.*

| | Number of pupils. | Sensibility to locality. | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|--|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------|
| | | Right wrist. | Left wrist. | Right temporal. | Left temporal. |
| | | <i>Mm.</i> | <i>Mm.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| Girls (private schools) before puberty | 14 | 18.7 | 19.2 | 664 | 593 |
| Girls (private schools) after puberty | 80 | 17.0 | 16.6 | 971 | 994 |
| Girls (Washington) before puberty | 186 | 14.5 | 13.8 | ----- | ----- |
| Girls (Washington) after puberty | 362 | 15.0 | 13.8 | ----- | ----- |
| Girls (Washington) all ages | 548 | 14.9 | 13.9 | ----- | ----- |
| Girls (Chattanooga) before puberty | 50 | ----- | ----- | 2,480 | 2,585 |
| Girls (Chattanooga) after puberty | 117 | ----- | ----- | 2,589 | 2,543 |

UNIVERSITY WOMEN, EASTERN STATE (TABLE V).

Those with poor nutrition, when compared with others, are inferior in weight, sitting height, and strength; in distance between orbits, corners of eyes and from crown to chin, and in distance between zygomatic arches; in short, they are physically inferior in general.

Comparing the blondes with the brunettes, the blondes are inferior in all measurements except in the distance of crown to chin and distance between zygomatic arches. The blondes are less sensitive to pain. This is in accord with the investigation of this particular point by Miss Carman, in her study of the schools in Saginaw, Mich.^a In general, the blondes are inferior physically to the brunettes.

TABLE V.—*University women.*^a

| | Number of students. | Average age. | Average weight. | Average lung capacity. | Average height. | Sitting height. | Strength of— | | Distance between— | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|------------|---------------------------|------------------|
| | | | | | | | Right hand. | Left hand. | External edges of orbits. | Corners of eyes. |
| Nutrition good..... | 19 | 21 | 125 | 143 | 161 | 89 | 77 | 64 | 99 | 29 |
| Nutrition fair..... | 10 | 21 | 126 | 158 | 164 | 89 | 79 | 64 | 100 | 28 |
| Nutrition poor..... | 5 | 23 | 114 | 157 | 163 | 88 | 66 | 57 | 97 | 23 |
| Complexion blonde..... | 8 | 20 | 116 | 153 | 158 | 88 | 76 | 65 | 95 | 29 |
| Complexion medium..... | 18 | 22 | 128 | 145 | 162 | 89 | 75 | 62 | 101 | 29 |
| Complexion brunette..... | 8 | 21 | 129 | 156 | 163 | 89 | 79 | 64 | 99 | 27 |

| | Crown to chin. | Length of— | | | | Width of mouth. | Thickness of lips. | Least sensibility to pain. | | Distance between zygomatic arches. |
|--------------------------|----------------|------------|-----------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| | | Right ear. | Left ear. | Right thumb. | Left thumb. | | | Right temporal muscle. | Left temporal muscle. | |
| Nutrition good..... | 234 | 57 | 57 | 62 | 62 | 49 | 14 | 2,289 | 2,242 | 129 |
| Nutrition fair..... | 235 | 56 | 56 | 64 | 63 | 47 | 16 | 1,945 | 1,867 | 128 |
| Nutrition poor..... | 230 | 56 | 56 | 63 | 63 | 47 | 14 | 2,670 | 2,315 | 125 |
| Complexion blonde..... | 230 | 56 | 56 | 62 | 62 | 47 | 14 | 2,884 | 2,315 | 126 |
| Complexion medium..... | 236 | 57 | 57 | 63 | 63 | 48 | 14 | 2,276 | 2,109 | 129 |
| Complexion brunette..... | 233 | 57 | 57 | 63 | 63 | 48 | 15 | 1,931 | 1,918 | 126 |

^a Measurements made by Frances A. Kellor of the University of Chicago, and Emily Dunning, M. D., of New York.

These comparisons from Table V have been given somewhat in detail; but of course the number of persons examined is too small to give weight to the conclusions.

^a Experimental Study of Children, p. 1114.

INTERPRETATION OF PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS.

We hear a great deal at present about the supposed significance of physical characteristics, anomalies, and the like, in the face, head, mouth, and hands; and not a few earnest people seem to attach much importance to many such signs; but the world of science has as yet shown little confidence in these interpretations of the signs. One, however, should hold himself open to all possible truth. But it is evident that if any of those physical signs are to be proved significant, it must be done by patient observations on a large number of people, faithfully recorded. People must not be selected for such purpose, and all exceptions must be carefully noted and studied. Until this is done few serious investigators can be expected to place much weight on conclusions as to personality drawn from physical characteristics.

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS, WESTERN STATE (TABLE VI).

As a great majority of students have reached adult age, we will compare the students in general as to sensibility to pain.

The first born (men and women) are more sensitive to pain than the second born. This accords with the investigation by Miss Carman, who found that in general sensitiveness to pain decreases in order of birth.

The second born (men and women) are less sensitive to pain than the later born. This is not in accord with the results of the investigation just mentioned. But in new lines of inquiry with small numbers, tentative contradictions are what might be expected. It only shows the necessity of investigation of large numbers if more than preliminary results are to be obtained. Yet even with small numbers, the probable truth has often been indicated.

TABLE VI.—*University (Western State).*^a

MEN.

| Number of students. | | Sensibility to pain. | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| | | Right temporal. | Left temporal. |
| | | <i>Grams.</i> | <i>Grams.</i> |
| 13 | Blonde | 1,317 | 1,366 |
| 23 | Brunette | 1,397 | 1,211 |
| 22 | Medium | 1,160 | 1,150 |
| 19 | First born | 1,311 | 1,246 |
| 13 | Second born | 1,427 | 1,471 |
| 21 | Later born | 1,201 | 1,083 |
| 14 | Dolichocephalic | 1,512 | 1,489 |
| 34 | Mesocephalic | 1,183 | 1,190 |
| 10 | Brachycephalic | 1,340 | 1,262 |
| 58 | All | 1,289 | 1,258 |

WOMEN.

| | | | |
|----|-----------------------|-----|-----|
| 8 | Blonde | 926 | 823 |
| 8 | Brunette | 885 | 848 |
| 22 | Medium | 786 | 851 |
| 8 | First born | 825 | 734 |
| 12 | Second born | 863 | 991 |
| 16 | Later born | 800 | 766 |
| 7 | Dolichocephalic | 820 | 948 |
| 15 | Mesocephalic | 926 | 394 |
| 16 | Brachycephalic | 817 | 804 |
| 38 | All | 836 | 845 |

^a These measurements were kindly furnished the writer by Prof. B. J. Hawthorne.

MEASUREMENTS OF POLISH AND ITALIAN CHILDREN.^a

We give some results of measurements on Polish and Italian children by specialists in those countries.

Most of the conclusions must be taken as tentative, for the number of children measured is not as yet large enough to warrant more than probability.

CHILDREN OF POLAND.

The first part of Table No. 1 below is that of Dr. Landsberger, of Poland. From 1880 to 1886 he measured yearly in May 104 children. He lays stress upon the fact that it was always the same children. Many of the children, however, fell out from year to year, from one cause or another. Yet Landsberger says the numbers were large enough at the outset to give the average value.

The children were separated into two classes, the poor and the well-to-do. He made measurements of the liver by percussion, and found that from 6 to 8 in boys the liver was on an average 10, 10½ centimeters long in the well-to-do classes; in the children of the poorer classes it was less. The liver is from 8.9 to 9.3 per cent the length of the body. Frerichs has found by measurements on the dead, where the length of body was from 100 to 150 centimeters, the liver was 8.3 centimeters, and in boys from 6 to 15 years 6.7 centimeters long. Hensen makes the liver of the new-born infant weigh 4.39 per cent and that of the adult 2.77 per cent of the whole weight of the body.

| | 6 years. | 7 years. | 8 years. | 9 years. | 10 years. | 11 years. | 12 years. | 13 years. | Increase. | |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| | | | | | | | | | From 6 to 13 years. | Per year. |
| | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> | <i>Cm.</i> |
| Length of body | 106.9 | 112.2 | 117.3 | 122.1 | 125.4 | 130.0 | 135.2 | 139.2 | 32.3 | 4.6 |
| Arm reach | 106.3 | 112.5 | 116.9 | 122.2 | 125.0 | 129.6 | 135.4 | 140.5 | 34.2 | 4.8 |
| Length of left arm | 47.3 | 49.4 | 50.2 | 53.6 | 54.9 | 57.0 | 59.7 | 62.7 | 15.4 | 2.2 |
| Maximum length of head ... | 16.5 | 16.6 | 16.7 | 16.5 | 17.0 | 17.1 | 17.2 | 17.5 | 1.0 | |
| Maximum width of head | 13.7 | 14.5 | 14.3 | 14.5 | 14.5 | 14.6 | 14.6 | 14.5 | 0.8 | |
| Height of head | 20.7 | 20.0 | 20.9 | 21.2 | 21.0 | 21.4 | 21.3 | 21.7 | 1.0 | |
| Height of face | 14.7 | 14.7 | 14.9 | 15.4 | 15.7 | 15.6 | 16.1 | 16.5 | 1.8 | 0.2 |
| Circumference of head | 50.9 | 51.0 | 51.3 | 51.7 | 51.8 | 51.9 | 52.3 | 52.3 | 1.4 | 0.2 |
| Circumference of neck | 24.9 | 25.4 | 26.0 | 26.3 | 26.7 | 27.0 | 27.9 | 29.1 | 4.2 | 0.6 |
| Circumference of chest | 54.8 | 55.4 | 58.0 | 60.2 | 61.9 | 63.7 | 65.0 | 69.0 | 14.2 | 2.0 |

INFLUENCE OF AGE ON GROWTH OF BODY.

The position of the extremities is parallel to the length of the body and corresponds in growth. The length of the extremities is about one-half the length of the body. The extremities grow rapidly up to the sixteenth year. Then there is a slow growth to the thirtieth year, when the maximum is reached; then follows a slight retrogression. The increase of the leg in length is in general up to the tenth year less than half of the increase of the length of the body; but in the following year the leg grows faster than the half of the increase of the body in length. This continues up to the seventeenth year. Directly before puberty leg and trunk grow about equally. The increased growth of the whole body during puberty is due especially to the increase in length of leg.

^a Western Journal of Education, November, 1899, San Francisco, Cal.

In advanced age the leg shortens somewhat in length, due to the flattening of the instep, weakness in the knee joints, and sinking of the neck in the femur.

The greatest yearly increase in the length of the foot is in the sixth year, which is striking. In old age foot and hand decrease. This, as in the extremities in general, is probably due to arthritic changes in the joints. Thus in the general shrinking of old age all members of the body take part.

The circumference of head of the new-born child is over 60 per cent of its full length of body when grown. At birth the circumference of head is about three-fourths of the height of the body; when the child is grown it has fallen to only one-third of the height of the body.

As to the shape of the head, it is rounder in childhood, but gradually becomes longer as indicated by the cephalic index. As before indicated, the maximum length grows faster than the maximum width.

The height of face during the last five years increases more than the other parts of the head; during the second five years the increase is small, but larger afterwards. The width of face of bizygomatic diameter, though having a smaller increase than the height of face, corresponds to it in its growth. The distance between the eyes increases parallel with the width of head; the increase from birth to adult age is only 10 millimeters; at birth this distance is 68 per cent of its full growth.

The height of nose represents the middle division of the face, which grows the most of all, both in width and height. The nose grows much faster in height than in width; the nasal index decreasing with age.

The face may be divided into three parts (Weissenberg): The upper part, from the vertex to the root of the nose; the second or middle part, from the root of the nose to the base of the nose, and the lower part, from the base of the nose to the end of the chin.

In duration and quantity of growth these three divisions of the face increase from above to below. The middle division increases the most, and it is the upper jaw that rules the growth of the whole face.

The relatively small increase of head as compared with body may be due to the fact that from the day of birth the child needs its brain and senses as much as when it is grown.

In a work on children (by the writer), to be published by the United States Bureau of Education, will be found further details in juvenile anthropometry, and its bearing on sociological condition.

Experimental study of children, including anthropometrical and psycho-physical measurements of Washington school children; measurements of school children in the United States and Europe; descriptions of instruments of precision in the laboratory of the Bureau of Education; child study in the United States; and a bibliography. Reprint (from Annual Report of United States Commissioner of Education for 1897-98), 325 pages, 8°. Washington, D. C., 1899.

PERIODS OF GROWTH.

Comparing the results of Weissenberg and others, there are six periods of growth. The first period extends from birth to the sixth or eighth year, and is throughout one of very rapid growth.

The second period extends from 11 to 14 years of age, and growth is slow.

The third period is from 16 to 17, presenting a sudden advance in growth, which is in relation with the development of puberty.

The fourth period shows a slow growth, extending up to age 30 for length of body; up to age 50 for chest girth. Here growth in the proper sense has ceased.

The fifth period is one of rest, and in normal conditions is from 30 to 50 years of age, and is one of full symmetrical development.

The sixth and last period is characterized by a decrease in all dimensions of the body.

It must be remembered that these periods do not always fall at the same age.

GROWTH OF HEAD, FACE, AND NOSE.

The development of the head of children has been studied but very little.

NEURO-SOCIAL DATA.^a

Tabular statement giving quantitative measurements of sensibility in persons of different ages and different classes of society.

| No. | Classification of individuals. | Number of persons. | Ages and average ages. | Average least sensibility to distance (locality) between two points on volar surface of wrists. | | Average least sensibility to heat on volar surface of wrists. | | Average least sensibility to pain (by pressure) on temporal muscles and on palm of hand. | |
|------|---|--------------------|------------------------|---|-------------|---|-------------|--|--------------------|
| | | | | Right wrist. | Left wrist. | Right wrist. | Left wrist. | Right. | Left. |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| I | Women (highly educated)... | 23 | ^a 38 | mm. 17.3 | mm. 16.2 | Cent. 22.1 | Cent. 10.7 | Kilos. 1.253 | ^b 1.224 |
| II | Young women (wealthy classes)..... | 11 | ^c 30 | 13.6 | 12.4 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 2.9 | ^d 2.4 |
| III | Young men (wealthy classes)..... | 10 | ^c 30 | 12.4 | 12.7 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 4.2 |
| IV | Boston, army of unemployed | 35 | ^a 28 | 16.1 | 15.6 | | | 9.5 | 9.5 |
| V | Washington school children (boys)..... | 526 | 6-18 | 16.3 | 15.5 | 3.9 | 3.8 | | |
| VI | Washington school children (girls)..... | 551 | 6-18 | 14.8 | 13.8 | 4.5 | 3.9 | | |
| VII | Boys (parents well-to-do)..... | 205 | 6-18 | 16.2 | 15.2 | 4.0 | 3.9 | | |
| VIII | Boys (parents poor)..... | 119 | 6-18 | 16.6 | 15.9 | 4.0 | 3.7 | | |
| IX | Girls (parents well-to-do)..... | 183 | 6-18 | 14.3 | 13.5 | 3.9 | 3.5 | | |
| X | Girls (parents poor)..... | 133 | 6-18 | 14.9 | 13.8 | 3.9 | 3.6 | | |
| XI | Boys, before puberty..... | 318 | 6-14 | 15.7 | 14.9 | 3.9 | 3.6 | | |
| XII | Boys, after puberty..... | 208 | 15-18 | 17.2 | 16.3 | 4.5 | 4.2 | | |
| XIII | Girls, before puberty..... | 186 | 6-12 | 14.5 | 13.8 | 4.8 | 3.8 | | |
| XIV | Girls, after puberty..... | 362 | 13-18 | 15.1 | 14.0 | 4.3 | 4.0 | | |
| XV | Colored children: | | | | | | | | |
| | Boys..... | 33 | 6-19 | 13.9 | 13.5 | 2.0 | 1.7 | | |
| XVI | Girls..... | 58 | 6-16 | 15.2 | 14.1 | 2.5 | 2.4 | | |

^a Average.

^b T muscle.

^c Unknown.

^d Hand.

The tests for temperature discrimination were made with Eulenberg's thermæsthesiometer; those for pain with the author's own algometer applied to the temporal muscle. All the psychological conditions were made as uniform as possible, especially with the children. Should these results be confirmed by experiments on larger numbers of individuals, the following statements would be probable:

Middle-aged women of the educated classes are much less acute in the sense of locality on the wrist, but much more acute to heat than

^a Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, in the Psychological Review, Vol. III, No. 2, March, 1896.

young women of the wealthy classes. (Nos. I and II, columns 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.)

Young men of the wealthy classes are much more sensitive to locality and pain than the men of the Boston army of the unemployed (Nos. III and IV, columns 3, 4, 7, 8).

Young women of the wealthy classes are much less sensitive to locality and heat, but much more sensitive to pain than young men of the wealthy classes (Nos. II, III, columns 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8). As to pain, it is true in general that women are more sensitive than men, as shown in a former investigation. But, as remarked then, it does not necessarily follow that women can not endure more pain than men.

Boys are more sensitive to locality and heat before puberty than after. Girls are more sensitive to locality before puberty, but their sensibility to heat is about the same before and after puberty (Nos. XI-XIV, columns 3, 4, 5, 6).

Colored boys are more sensitive to locality and heat than white boys. Colored girls are less sensitive to locality, but more sensitive to heat than white girls (Nos. VI and XVI, columns 3, 4, 5, 6). Colored boys are more sensitive to locality and heat than colored girls (Nos. XV and XVI, columns 3, 4, 5, 6).

The left wrist is more sensitive to locality, heat, and pain than the right wrist; only one exception (No. III, columns 3, 4).

These experiments are perhaps the first ever made on the nervous system of school children. Their practical value is this: Any pupil 20 per cent above or below the averages for its age should be reported to the family physician. It is doubtful whether such a pupil should be allowed in school. If allowed, they should be separated from the others. There are too many bright pupils with weak bodies.

SOME RECENT RESULTS FROM THE STUDY OF MAN.

It may be interesting to give some of the results of recent investigations of modern man. The statement of these results will indicate how incomplete and unsatisfactory our knowledge of living man is. As there can be no more important study than man himself, the need of bringing this study up to the degree of accuracy equal to that of the sciences is evident. But this can be done only by patient investigation with instruments of precision applied to many persons of all classes. To these psycho-physical results must be added a sociological study of all the outward conditions in which the individuals have existed from childhood up. This combination of psycho-physics and sociology will make both more useful to the community.

The conclusions below, although based upon a considerable number of cases or experiments, can be held only as tentative, that is, while true for the individuals experimented upon, they have only a general probability when applied to all persons. To be generally true, most of the conclusions would have to be based upon a very large number of experiments.

Some of the conclusions may seem so obvious as not to need an experimental basis, but commonly accepted ideas may prove to be more false than true when submitted to rigid tests, for general impressions are sometimes based on conspicuous exceptions.

It is not intended here to note results from all those who have done research work. In giving the conclusions we have followed the work

of the investigators as much as brevity would allow, giving the general idea in as few words as possible. As will be seen, much research has been done by Americans.

RESULTS.^a

GROWTH.

Large children make their most rapid growth at an earlier age than small ones (Bowditch).

Maximum growth in height and weight occurs in boys two years later than in girls (Bowditch).

First-born children excel later born in stature and weight (Boas).

Healthy men ought to weigh an additional 5 pounds for every inch in height beyond 61 inches, at which height they ought to weigh 120 pounds (Lancaster).

Chest girth increases constantly with height and is generally half the length of the body (Landsberger).

Chest girth and circumference of head increase in parallel lines (Daffner).

The relatively large size of head as compared with body in children may be due to the fact that from birth on the child needs its brain and senses as much as when it is grown (Weissenberg).

Boys grow more regularly than girls, but the growth of girls during school years is greater than that of boys (Schmidt).

In boys in school the muscles of the upper extremities increase with age as compared with those of the lower extremities because of their sitting more than standing (Kotelmann).

Breadth of face increases much more rapidly in proportion to the growth of head in breadth and length (West).

Tall boys (naval cadets) are much more likely to have completed their growth at an earlier age than those short in stature (Beyer).

Children born in summer are taller than those born in winter (Combe).

Boys of small frames often have large heads and are deficient in repose of character, and when the chest is contracted and mental action slow, this mental condition is due probably to lack of supply of purified blood (Liharzik).

Delicate, slender people are much more subject to typhoid fever than to consumption (Hilderbrand).

Women students who have had infectious diseases are superior in weight, height, strength, and lung capacity to those having had hereditary diseases (MacDonald).^b

Some defective children are over-normal—that is, they are taller and heavier than other children (Hasse).

Growth degenerates as we go lower in the social scale (British Association for Advancement of Science).

Dull children are lighter and precocious children heavier than the average child (Porter).

Urban life decreases stature from five years of age on (Peckham).

Truant boys are inferior in weight, height, and chest girth to boys in general (Kline).

^a For full understanding of some of the results, one of course must consult the original articles.

^b Philadelphia Medical Journal, April 20, 1901.

Righthandedness is natural, and the superiority of the right over the left hand increases with growth (Smedley, F. W.).

SIGHT.

Visual perceptions are not copies of a physical world, but mainly the result of experience and utility (Cattell).

In the association of images frequency is the most constant condition of suggestibility (Calkins, Mary W.).

If the eye is the expressing sense, all lengths are greatly underestimated, the error decreasing as the length increases (Jastrow).

The recognition of an ordinary picture requires one-fifth of a second or less, the time decreasing as the familiarity increases (Colegrove, F. W.).

An object is recognized more readily when inverted than in either of the two intermediate portions of quarter-reversal, and more readily than in the erect mirror position or the position inverted (Dearborn, G. V.).

Visualization decays as age advances and abstract thought increases (Armstrong and Judd).

Localization seems to depend much more on fusion than upon motor tension of the eyes (Hyslop).

The effects of fatigue are more lasting toward the side portion of the retina than near the center (Washburn, Margaret F.).

From the commencement of a momentary illumination until the appearance of an after-image 0.344 second elapses (v. Vintschgau and Lustig).

The eye when in the primary position can be rotated from this position 42° outward, 45° inward, 34° upward, and 57° downward (Schuermann).

The sense of sight is much more accurate in estimating length than the sense of touch aided by the muscular sense (Swift, E. J.).

When colored objects are very small and illumined only for a short time, the normal eye first fails to perceive red (Aubert).

When retinal fields (colored squares or figures) are presented in succession, the new field dominates in consciousness (Pace, E. A.).

There is good evidence for believing that we can get an after-image from a mental image (Downey, June E.).

Red and yellow are visible at greater distances than green and blue (Misses Tanner and Anderson).

The pleasantness of colors generally increases with their saturation (Cohn, J.).

The optic nerves, especially the left optic, in Laura Bridgman, are very small, when compared with those in normal brains (Donaldson.)

Children can not see colors as far in indirect vision as adults. Difference in sex makes no perceptible difference in the extent of color range (Luckey, G. W. A.).

In comparison of a fixed object with one which is moved toward or from the eye, the moved object is generally underestimated (McCrea and Pritchard).

SOUND.

In the audibility of shrill notes there is a remarkable falling off of the power as age advances (Galton).

Beats are more precisely perceived by the ear than by other sense-organs (Höring, Mach).

We distinguish more easily the direction from which noises mixed with musical tones come than that of tones (Rayleigh).

The fixedness of auditory localization can indeed influence the optical impression (Münsterberg and Pierce).

The conception of a rhythm demands a perfectly regular sequence of impressions within the limits of about 1.0 sec. and 0.1 sec. (Bolton, T. E.).

The auditory element in reading is a much more persistent factor than articulation (Secor, B. S.).

Tones of liminal intensity, attentively followed by practiced observers, evince the fluctuations ordinarily described as "fluctuations of attention" (Cook, H. O.).

There is no good evidence for supposing that cutaneous sensations play any part in the localization of sound (Angell and Fite).

MEMORY.

In young children a memory image is smaller than its object, while in adults it may exceed the object in size (Wolfe, H. K.).

The memory which acts quicker acts better (Bigham, J.).

The memory image tends to grow larger as the time interval increases (Warren and Shaw).

The memory image is more readily producible after five minutes than after one minute (Bentley, I. M.).

Matter memorized orally appears to be retained slightly better than that memorized visually (Whitehead, L. G.).

It is absurd to assume that the memorizing of any subject gives valuable memory training (Kirkpatrick, E. A.).

Sentences are remembered inversely in proportion to their length and number of nonessentials contained (Shaw, J. C.).

Great men, though often absent-minded, have strong memories in the lines of their interests (Yoder).

The accuracy of memory is enhanced if during the interval the attention is deflected from the thing to be remembered to something else (von Zwetan Radoslawow-Hadji-Denkow).

SKIN.

The skin over the joints is more sensitive than elsewhere; touches on the back are more distinctly felt than touches on the front of the body; touches on the left side are not so well localized as on the right side (Krohn and Bolton).

The greater the mobility of the part, the greater the sense of locality on the skin (Vierordt).

A weight held by one limb seems to become lighter as soon as we contract other muscles of the limb, which, however, are not required to act in supporting the weight (Charpentier).

The sensibility to cold is generally greater than to heat, that of the left hand greater than the right (Goldscheider).

Limbs which are asleep feel heat and not cold (Herzen).

The greater the sensibility of the skin the more rapidly can stimuli succeed each other and still be perceived as single impressions (Bloch).

Two points touching the skin feel wider apart than when moved along the skin (Fechner).

The pain threshold increases with the area of stimulation, but, like the tactile threshold, much more slowly than in direct proportion.

The most sensitive parts of the body are those where the skin is not separated from the bone by muscular and other tissues (Griffing, H.).

In cutaneous perception of form, the tip of the tongue ranks first, then come the finger tips and lips (Major, D. R.).

TASTE AND SMELL.

Taste sensation, so far as their discriminative or intellectual value is concerned, are the composite result of the mingling of sensations of smell, touch, temperature, sight, and taste (Patrick, G. T. W.).

Sweet is tasted best on the tip of the tongue, sour on the edge, and bitter at the base, acid equally on the tip and edges, but less at the base (Kiesow, F.).

Saline substances are tasted most rapidly (after 0.17 second); then come sweet, acid, and bitter (v. Vintschgau).

Odorous bodies diminish the number of respirations (Gourewitsch).

Weber's law applies to smell (Gamble, Eleanor).

MOVEMENT.

The thought of a movement already begins it, facilitates it, quickens it; yet attention to a practiced movement in many instances embarrasses it, hinders it, lengthens it (Baldwin).

Accuracy in judging space by movements of the arm increases with age (Gilbert).

Automatic movements of the speech organs do take place and are far from uncommon (Curtis, H. S.).

There is a gradual increase of motor ability with age; the increase in mental ability is not so well marked. Boys slightly surpass girls in motor ability, while the reverse obtains in mental ability (Bagley, W. C.).

In involuntary motor reaction there is a strong tendency to expansion under agreeable stimuli, and to contraction under disagreeable stimuli (Münsterberg).

Contraction of the extensor muscles is more pleasant in itself than contraction of the flexors (Dearborn, G. V. N.).

The individual who is fairly accurate and very quick is generally more accurate when he takes more time (Fitz, G. W.).

The average knee-jerk varies in amount at different times of day, being as a rule greatest in the morning and very much less at night, and in general large after each meal (Lombard).

ATTENTION.

The constant of attention for any activity increases with (1) the effort of the accommodation of the special sense-organs; (2) the effort in coordination of the muscles; (3) the effort of the memory, and (4) the number of simultaneous activities (Welch, Janette C.).

The time question in attention is not a case of a "sensory" versus a "motor" reaction, but of a sensori-motor less habitual versus a sensori-motor more habitual (Angell and Moore).

In perceptual attention there is a general increase in the rapidity of respiration. This is also characteristic of heightened mental activity (MacDougal, R.).

VOLITION.

The power of volition of the ego seems to induce changes in the cerebral centers and connected organs of sense apparently without

any use of the muscular system to control the nature of those changes (Ladd).

Mental images themselves constitute the motives, the springs of action, for all we do (Lay, W.).

Positive feeling seems to indicate that the function exercised is supported by a good amount of nervous energy, and negative feeling, the opposite condition (Hylan, J. P.).

If the volitional temperament is unfavorable, practice will have no effect in determining the two types of reaction time (Titchener, Hill, and Watanabe).

STIMULATION AND SENSATION.

Intensity of sensation is exactly proportional to the duration of stimulation, the time being less than necessary to produce a maximum effect (Lough, J. E.).

The threshold of sensation for the sense of pressure in an average person is 2 milligrams on the forehead, temple, and back of forearm, 5 milligrams on nose and chin, and 15 milligrams on under surface of fingers (Scripture).

Equal increments of sensation are produced by increments of stimulus in geometrical progression (Morgan, C. L.).

The minimal time of stimulation which will yield an after-sensation is about 5 seconds with a pressure of 150 grams (Spindler, F. H.).

In judgments of comparison with a metal standard there is an absence of any correspondence with Weber's law (Woodworth and Thorndike).

MORAL SENSE.

Young children think of the results of action; older children consider more the motive that leads to action (Schallenberger, Margaret).

The humane instinct in children is much stronger than the destructive instinct (Barnes).

As age increases children have more sense of their own value, submit to punishment less, but feel more responsibility (Frear, Caroline).

Moral action in child life is more a matter of imitation than intellect (Street, J. R.).

Girls show less interest in material things than boys, and admire the æsthetic more (Chandler, Katherine).

READING AND WRITING.

Many acts called intelligent, such as reading and writing, can go on quite automatically in ordinary people (Solomons, Leon M., and Stein, Gertrude).

In reading, the size of type is the all-important condition of visual fatigue. No type less than 1.5 mm. in height (11 point) should be used, the fatigue increasing rapidly even before the size becomes as small as this (Griffing and Franz).

In learning to interpret the telegraphic language, it is intense effort which educates; each new step in advance seems to cost more than the former (Bryan and Harter).

In writing, men respond to an increased difficulty by intensifying the volitional impulse, women by a reduction in the size of the characters written (Diehl, A.).

Rapid readers do their work better, as well as in less time, and retain more of the substance of what is read (Quantz, J. O.).

As to legibility of small letters, w, m, q, p, v, y, j, and f are good; h, r, d, g, k, b, x, l, n, and u are fair, and a, t, i, z, o, c, s, and e are poor (Sanford).

Eye movements in reading are not materially different from those made in response to peripheral stimuli as the eye looks back and forth between two fixing points (Dodge and Cline).

In adding, the effect of alcohol seems to be a slight quickening; in reading and writing, alcohol produces a period of quickening followed by a period of retardation (Partridge, G. E.).

ILLUSIONS AND DREAMS.

In perception of visual form, each observer has certain habits of illusion, or certain typical modes of associative completion, which persist with modification throughout his records (Hempstead, L.).

Illusions are mainly due to auto suggestion (Tawney, G. A.).

Men are less prone than women to illusions of weight (Wolfe, H. K.).

Dreams are the product of light sleep, representing the reinstatement of consciousness after the early and profound sleep (Patrick and Gilbert).

The delusions of waking hours seldom or never come to harass the sleep of the monomaniac (Pilez, A.).

Illusions are easily built up when suggested along the lines of firmly fixed associations, and consequently the brightest children are more suggestible under these conditions than the dullest ones (Dresslar, F. B.).

BLUSHING AND FEAR.

Blushing comes from shyness and fear, is unnatural and morbid, increases at puberty, and is greater in women than men (Partridge, G. E.).

In boys, fear increases from ages 7 to 15, and then declines; in girls, from 4 to 18. Girls fear more than boys (Hall).

POWER OF ESTIMATION.

Younger children underestimate weight and size (proportion) and overestimate time (Franz and Houston).

Weights are discriminated a little better through the hand than through the foot (Kinnaman, A. J.).

In the estimation of measurement, men are more accurate than women (Bolton, T. E.).

Time perception can alone be counted for as a process. Nearly all persons under nearly all conditions find a particular length of time interval more easily and accurately to be judged than any other (Nichols, H.).

MISCELLANEOUS.

Students entering college have heads, on the average, 19.3 cm. long; 15 per cent have defective hearing; their average reaction time is 0.174 sec.; they can remember seven numerals heard once (Cattell and Farrand).

In reaction time, the ear-lip coordination is the fastest (Angell and Moore).

Lower races seem to have shorter reaction times than higher races; they are more automatic (Bache, R. M.).

The mental processes of the highest animals are not radically different from those of man, but man has capabilities of feeling and intellect which animals can not attain (Mills, W.).

Mental exercise causes less inflow of arterial blood into the arm, and so does sleep (Mosso).

Vascular tonicity increases diastole (double-beating pulse) and high pressure diminishes it (Binet).

In general, sensitiveness to pain decreases in order of birth (Carman, Ada).

Those who have endured the most hardship in life are usually the least sensitive to pain (MacDonald).

City children are more vivacious, but have less power of endurance than country children (Lihartzik).

Among United States naval cadets there is a great preponderance of blondes (Beyer).

The insane show an excess of 5 per cent of light eyes, with dark hair, and criminals of 10 per cent of dark eyes, with dark hair, over the general population (Roberts).

In Germany 40 per cent of the children of the well-to-do classes are blondes and less than 10 per cent brunettes (Virchow).

The endurance (ergographic work) of boys is greater than that of girls at all ages (Christopher, W. S.).

The desire to make the objective conditions correspond with the subjective ones requires unity in our forms and is the one essential condition for the emergence of the æsthetic consciousness (Pierce, E.).

In religion conversion is not a unique experience, but has its correspondence in the common phenomena of religious growth (Starbuck, E. D.).

Continuous intellectual work during several hours produces a decrease in the heart beats (Vaschide).

Weather conditions which are physically energizing and exhilarating are accompanied by an unusual number of excesses in deportment and the minimum of deaths and mental inexactness, while the opposite meteorological conditions show the reverse effects (Dexter, E. G.).

In literature red indicates man; blue and green, nature; and white, yellow, and black, imagination (Ellis, Havelock).

High percentile rank in height, weight, and chest circumference in growing children is nearly always found associated with a superior grade of mental work, as that is determined in our schools (Beyer).

WASHINGTON CHILDREN.

There is a very general representation from all States among the residents of Washington. Conclusions concerning the children, therefore, may be more applicable to our country as a whole. We give some results from our study of 20,000 children in the public schools.

As circumference of head increases mental ability increases.^a

Colored girls have larger circumference of head at all ages than white girls.

Boys have greater circumference of head than girls; yet girls are superior to boys in their studies, but girls show higher percentages of average ability and so less variability, indicating less power of adaptation. This is interpreted by some to be a defect from an evolutionary point of view.

^a It being understood that the race and sex are the same.

In white children brightness decreases with age in most studies.^a In colored children the reverse is the case.

Dull children are the most unruly, and unruly children are the dullest.

Mixture of nationalities does not seem to be favorable to the development of mental ability in the offspring.

The pubertal period of superiority of girls over boys in height, sitting height, and weight is nearly a year longer in the laboring classes than in the nonlaboring (professional and mercantile) classes.

Children with abnormalities are inferior in height, sitting height, and weight, and circumference of head to children in general.

Abnormalities are most frequent at dentition and puberty.^b

APPENDIX.

I. OPINIONS OF SCIENTIFIC JOURNALS.

Boston Medical and Surgical Journal says:

The question of the establishment of a psycho-physical laboratory at Washington has been under discussion for a considerable time. It is hoped that such a laboratory may be established, and if established may confine itself closely to the line of work outlined. That such work is needed there can be no question, and that it is eminently fitting that it should be supported and encouraged by the central Government is equally evident. It is peculiarly true of investigations of the proposed character which this laboratory is to pursue that a very large number of data must be collected before conclusions of significance may be drawn. The loose, popular, and often promiscuous talk of the last few years regarding degeneracy needs reconstruction and adjustment to the facts as soberly considered after years of patient investigation. If the suggested laboratory could, even in small measure, bring this about, its existence would be amply justified. In general, we are convinced that the intelligent collection of facts such as it is the design of this laboratory to accomplish in various lines of normal and abnormal anthropology is a work for which the time is ripe.

Pediatrics (New York) says:

Only by very extensive observations in this field can we ever hope to make trustworthy inductions concerning the relationship of the physical to the psychical, and so appreciate the true significance of the so-called stigmata of degeneration, about which so much has recently been written. By such studies we hope to be able also to determine the influence for good or evil of our present educational methods upon the bodies, minds, and morals of our school children, and thus perhaps be able to adjust such methods to the varying requirements of the individual. Prolonged, careful, and painstaking observations of this character will also enable us to form a true concept of a normal child and lead us to appreciate the significance of variations therefrom. We hope thus to be enabled in large measure to counteract irresponsible but none the less injurious tendencies.

The Centralblatt für Anthropologie, Ethnologie und Urgeschichte says:

The report of the commissioners of education for 1897-98 contains an extraordinarily weighty work of MacDonald's on anthropometrical and psycho-physical observations on children. In addition to the investigations specially undertaken on Washington school children, the author has given in a praiseworthy way an account of the results of measurements of children in general, a list of useful psycho-physical instruments, and a comprehensive bibliography.

^a Except in the more mechanical studies, as penmanship, drawing, and manual labor.

^b For popular treatment of many points see article (by writer) entitled "The Study of Children," *Everybody's Magazine*, New York, June, 1901.

This work is so rich in facts that it is impossible in one review to enter into details. The review, therefore, can bring out only the principal results. * * * MacDonald's work will form a guide and valuable help to everyone who is engaged in the elevation of the schools.

The Physician and Surgeon, of Detroit and Ann Arbor, Mich., says:

There are perhaps not many points of actual contact between the three learned professions—not many subjects for study that may properly claim their attention to an equal degree. It is true, however, that man in his psychophysical relationship appeals to the divine, the student of law, and the physician alike. Indeed, art itself is deeply concerned with the manifestations of normal and abnormal qualities, and similar bases for study should be patent to the educator and indirectly to all classes of student workers. Thus far we have all been almost totally engaged with that which lies nearest. In crime we have been dealing principally with the criminal, and neglected the causes which made him such. As a nation we spend fifty-nine millions annually on judiciary, police, prisons, and reformatories, and in spite of this great outlay only 1 in 4 or 5 is saved from a life of permanent degradation. The same conditions that provoked the first offense operate to cause a relapse in 3 out of 4 cases. It is an appalling fact that habitual criminals are on the increase. We must be protected from them, and yet that which is still more important, they must be protected from the anomalous conditions in which they are born and grow up. Only by the study of normal and abnormal anthropology can scientific knowledge be gained that will turn this current into more healthful channels. In the end much helpful information will be gained that should simplify all branches of study. This field is now being cultivated by numerous scientists, and laboratory methods are being used to further their labors. There is, however, no Government support, and yet it is a science that must inevitably react most favorably when put to practical use. An effort is now being made to establish a psychophysical laboratory in the Department of the Interior, and a Senate amendment to the sundry civil bill has already been introduced for that purpose. There are the best of reasons why this move should have been made long ago, and it is to be sincerely hoped that suitable provisions be made.

The *Revue de Psychologie Clinique et Therapeutique*, of Paris, says:

That which authorizes us to ask as to the application of Juvenal's aphorism, *mens sana in corpore sano*, is the knowledge of the relations of the physical to the psychical indicated by the presence of numerous degenerative stigmata in individuals attacked with some abnormal mental condition or derangement. The scientific verification of these relations is an acquisition of very recent date; it rests entirely upon the progress of anthropology, for this science has taken to itself a part of psychological examination, which we shall undertake to explain by giving a review of the method of MacDonald.

It is necessary to assure ourselves of the influence of educational methods for two reasons: Because education is concerned with the physical, mental, and moral development of individuals, who are an integral part of society and possess its power of regeneration; and because educational processes tend to place young persons in the conditions of artificial life, which from every point of view it is necessary to analyze thoroughly in order to know which of these processes and respective conditions are related to social degeneracy or regeneration.

[From editorial in the *American Lawyer*, New York.]

SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF THE CRIMINAL AND DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

An effort is being made to establish a laboratory in the Department of the Interior, at Washington, for the practical application of physiological psychology to sociological and abnormal or pathological data, especially as found in institutions for the criminal, pauper, and defective classes, and in hospitals, and also as may be observed in schools and other institutions. The defect in our present criminal law is, as we have before remarked, that it regards the crime and not the criminal. It presupposes that all mankind possess an equal power of resistance to antisocial tendencies. It practically lays down as an axiom that the child born of criminal parents, brought up in an environment of crime, is, until he has actually come within the jurisdiction of a magistrate's court, as equally desirable a citizen to all intents and purposes as he who has been reared in the atmosphere of the law abiding. Until an offense has been committed the law does not recognize the offender. For it the pro-

spective criminal does not exist. Unfortunately there are some beings who are moral imbeciles. To confine our efforts to punishing crime when committed rather than to preventing its commission is like the proverbial locking of barn after stealing of horse. Nothing has been done by Government as yet to treat the matter scientifically, and when it is considered that \$600,000,000 is the annual tribute which statisticians assure us society pays to crime, and that the United States has the highest murder rate of any civilized country in the world, one is almost tempted to long for a return to the condition of things, when one hundred and sixty offenses were punishable by death, though it be conceded that the death penalty is one of the slightest of deterrents to crime. The promoters of the measure have our best wishes.

[From The Central Law Journal, St. Louis, Mo.]

We earnestly share the sentiments and heartily indorse the efforts to induce the National Government to establish a psycho-physical laboratory for the study of criminology and kindred subjects. Knowledge is power—a trite saying, but one which has peculiar significance in this connection. One of the supremest objects of every government is absolute power within itself to suppress crime. The severest penalties of law have been futile to deter the criminal inflamed by passionate anger or a burning lust for gold. The drunkard, the pauper, and the criminal are creatures of circumstance, education, and heredity, and the science that can tell us under what conditions these forces act in evolving the abnormal man would necessarily put into our hands the secret of how to change those conditions. We especially commend the resolution to the favorable attention of bar associations all over the country.

II. INDORSEMENTS.

[V^e Congrès International d'Anthropologie criminelle (Amsterdam, septembre, 1901). Président, Mr. Le Prof. Dr. G. A. Van Hamel; secrétaire-général, Mr. Le Prof. Dr. J. K. A. Wertheim Salomonson.]

139 STADHOUDERSKADE,
Amsterdam, 18-9-1901.

DEAR SIR: I am intrusted by the committee of the fifth international congress of criminal anthropology, Amsterdam, September 9-14, 1901, to inform you that in the last meeting of the congress a motion was proposed by Dr. Louise G. Robinovitch, which was after some discussion passed by the congress.

The motion was worded as follows:

The members of the fifth international congress for criminal anthropology are in favor of the establishment of psycho-physical laboratories for the practical application of physiological psychology to sociological and abnormal or pathological data, especially as found in institutions for the criminal, pauper, and defective classes, and in hospitals, and also as may be observed in schools and other institutions.

I am, dear sir, yours, most sincerely,

J. WERTHEIM SALOMONSON,
Secretary-General of the Congress.

ARTHUR MACDONALD, Esq.,
Washington, U. S.

This congress consists of distinguished specialists from all Europe, and it is perhaps the highest authority in Europe. In our country up to date the following associations have passed the same resolution: Five national medical societies and associations—The American Medical Association, the Association of American Medical Editors, American Medico-Psychological Association, the Association for the Study and Cure of Inebriety, and the American Laryngological Society; twenty State medical societies—Connecticut, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Minnesota, Medical Society of the Missouri Valley, Mississippi Valley Medical Association, New England Psychological

Society of Alienists; also New England Hospital Society; North Dakota, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Texas; Tri-State Medical Society of Alabama, Georgia, and Tennessee; Utah and Wisconsin; three city medical societies—St. Louis, Chicago, and Syracuse, and the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, Virginia, and West Virginia; presbyteries of Baltimore and Pittsburg; dioceses of central Pennsylvania and Michigan; Kansas and New Mexico State bar associations.

The following gentlemen now in or formerly in Congress have written letters to the Department of the Interior indorsing this general line of work:

House of Representatives, United States.—Hon. D. B. Henderson, Hon. Amos J. Cummings, Hon. George W. Ray, Hon. Sereno E. Payne, Hon. Irving P. Wanger, Hon. E. Stevens Henry, Hon. Tazewell Ellett, Hon. R. W. Tayler, Hon. John K. Cowen, Hon. U. S. Hall, Hon. J. H. Southard, Hon. N. M. Curtis, Hon. H. D. Money, Hon. Case Broderick, Hon. Henry C. Brewster, Hon. H. W. Rusk, Hon. Foster V. Brown, Hon. M. Brosius, Hon. William A. Stone, Hon. John L. McLaurin, Hon. H. S. Greenleaf, Hon. John Van Voorhis.

United States Senate.—Hon. George F. Hoar, Hon. Augustus O. Bacon, Hon. T. C. Platt, Hon. John C. Spooner, Hon. David Turpie, Hon. James H. Kyle, Hon. Lee Mantle, Hon. Justin S. Morrill, Hon. J. C. S. Blackburn, Hon. George L. Shoup, Hon. N. C. Blanchard, Hon. R. F. Pettigrew, Hon. M. S. Quay, Hon. Thomas S. Martin, Hon. Charles F. Manderson.

SPECIALISTS WHO HAVE WRITTEN LETTERS IN FAVOR OF A PSYCHO-PHYSICAL LABORATORY UNDER THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

One of the main objects of the laboratory is to study statistically and with instruments of precision the criminal, pauper, defective, and other abnormal classes. It is a laboratory for sociological purposes.

Some of the specialists mentioned below are in different lines of work, but these lines are intimately connected with the work of the laboratory.

AMERICAN SPECIALISTS.

Angell, J. R. (experimental psychology), University of Chicago.
 Buchanan, J. L. (psychology and ethics), president University of Arkansas.
 Burnham, William H. (pedagogy), Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Barker, L. F. (anatomy), Chicago University.
 Bigham, J. (psychology), University of Michigan.
 Brinton, D. G. (anthropology), University of Pennsylvania.
 Butler, Nathaniel, president of Colby College, Maine.
 Chrisman, O. (paidology), State Normal School, Kansas.
 Caldwell, W. (ethics), Northwestern University, Chicago, Ill.
 Calkins, Mary W. (psychology), Wellesley College.
 Dana, C. L. (nervous system), Cornell University.
 Denny, C. (moral philosophy), Vanderbilt University, Tennessee.
 Ely, R. T. (political economy), University of Wisconsin.
 Forbes, J. F., president of John B. Stetson University, Florida.
 Gardiner, H. N. (philosophy), Smith College, Massachusetts.
 Henderson, C. R. (sociology), Chicago University.
 Hawthorne, B. J. (philosophy), University of Oregon.
 Heston, J. W., president of Agricultural College, South Dakota.
 Hicks, F. C. (economics), University of Missouri.
 Karns, T. C. (philosophy and pedagogy), University of Tennessee.
 Krohn, W. O., psychologist in Illinois Eastern Hospital.
 Lombard, W. P. (physiology), University of Michigan.
 Luckey, G. W. A. (pedagogy), University of Nebraska.
 MacDonald, Carlos F. (insanity and legal medicine), New York University.
 Mezes, Sydney E. (psychology), University of Texas.
 Merz, H. (philosophy and social science), University of Wyoming.
 Mills, Wesley (physiology), McGill University, Montreal.
 Mills, Charles K. (mental diseases, medical jurisprudence), University of Pennsylvania.

- Mall, F. P. (embryology), Johns Hopkins University.
 Patrick, G. T. W. (psychology), University of Iowa.
 Pearce, F. S. (nervous diseases), Medico-Chirurgical College, Philadelphia.
 Sanford, E. C. (psychology), Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Scripture, E. W. (psycho-physics), Yale University.
 Starr, F. (anthropology), Chicago University.
 Stanley, H. M. (psychology), Lake Forest University, Illinois.
 Swift, E. J. (psychology), State Normal School, Wisconsin.
 Scott, W. H. (philosophy), Ohio State University.
 Thwing, C. F., president of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Wood, H. C. (nervous diseases), University of Pennsylvania.
 Wenley, R. M. (philosophy), University of Michigan.
 Allison, H. E., superintendent Matteawan State Hospital (for criminal insane), New York State.
 Bulkley, L. D., M. D., secretary New York Skin and Cancer Hospital.
 Brown, Charles H., editor Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, New York.
 Barr, M. W., chief physician of Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children.
 Bruce, C. E., M. D., superintendent New York Juvenile Asylum.
 Brown, Z. R., formerly superintendent Elmira Reformatory.
 Crothers, T. D., M. D., editor Journal of Inebriety, Hartford, Conn.
 Christopher, W. S., M. D., Board of Education, Chicago, Ill.
 Carson, J. C., M. D., superintendent Syracuse State Institute for Feeble-minded Children.
 Drahms, A., chaplain of prison, San Quentin, Cal.
 Flood, E., M. D., superintendent Massachusetts Hospital for Epileptics.
 Pallock, F. K., M. D., Cromwell Hall (nervous diseases), Cromwell, Conn.
 McCorn, William A., resident physician River Crest (nervous diseases), New York City.
 Shrady, G. F., M. D., editor of Medical Record, New York City.
 Warner, Charles Dudley, Hartford, Conn.

EUROPEAN SPECIALISTS.

- Dessoir (psycho-physics), University of Berlin.
 Ferri (Senator) (criminal law), University of Rome.
 Lasson (philosophy), University of Berlin.
 Lombroso (criminology), University of Turin.
 Lilenthal (criminal law), University of Heidelberg.
 Marro (insanity), University of Turin.
 Mosso (physiology; psycho-physics), University of Turin.
 Obersteiner (nervous system), University of Vienna.
 Ottolenghi (legal medicine), University of Siena.
 Ranke (anthropology), University of Munich.
 Sergi (anthropology), University of Rome.
 Vogt (hypnology), University of Berlin.
 Dr. Daniel, physician at School for Special Instruction at Antwerp.
 Dr. Havelock Ellis, editor of Contemporaneous Science Series, London; author of *The Criminal*.
 Gibbon, G. A., M. D., editor of Edinburgh Medical Journal, Scotland.
 Morrison, W. D., D. D., formerly chaplain of Her Majesty's Prisons, London; author of *Juvenile Offenders*.
 Stead, W. T., editor of Review of Reviews, London, England.
 Tallack, William, secretary of Howard Association, London; author of *Penological Principles*.
 Warner, Francis, F. R. C. P. (abnormal children), London, England.
 De Watterville, M. D., editor of Brain, London, England.

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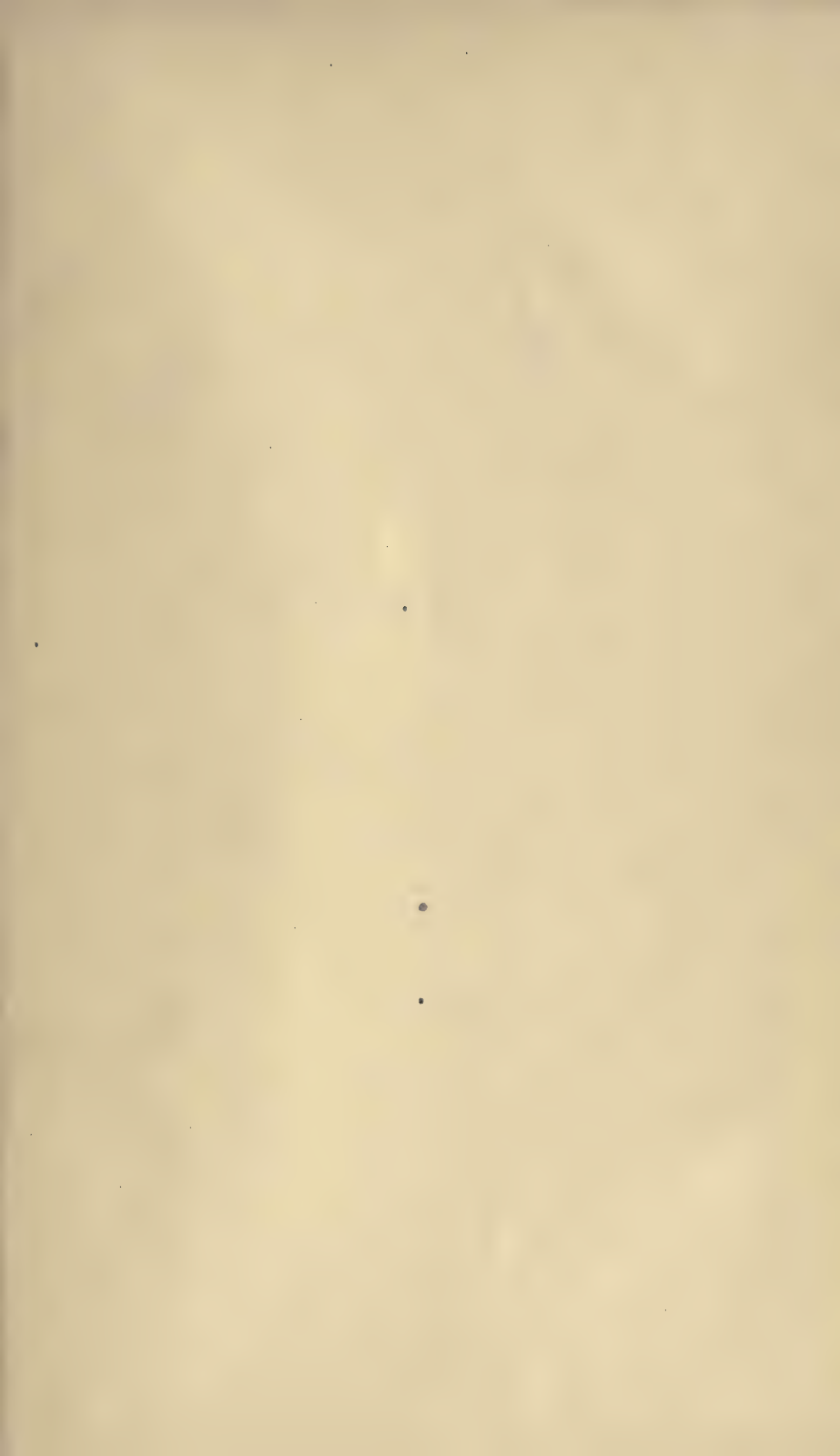
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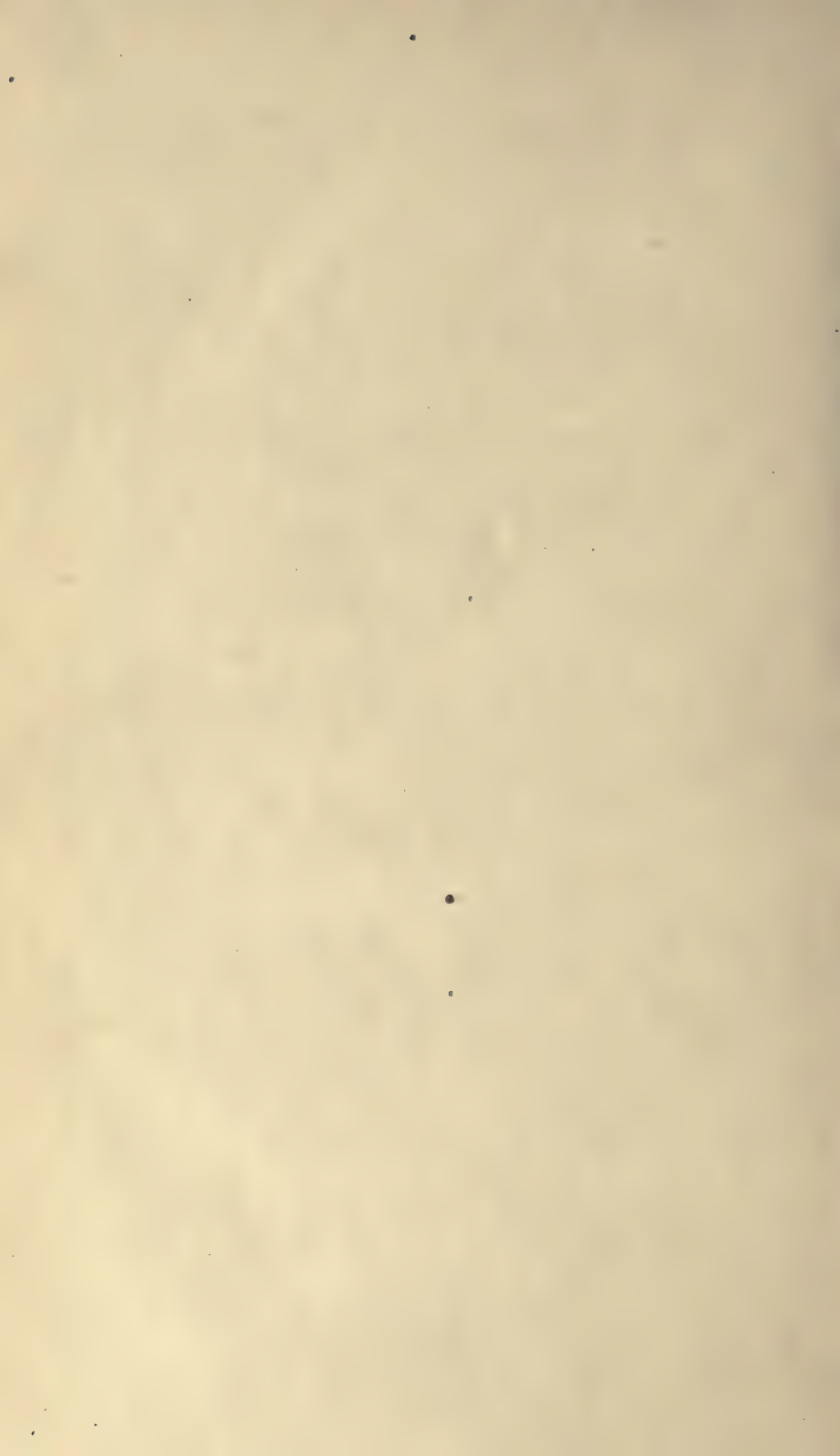
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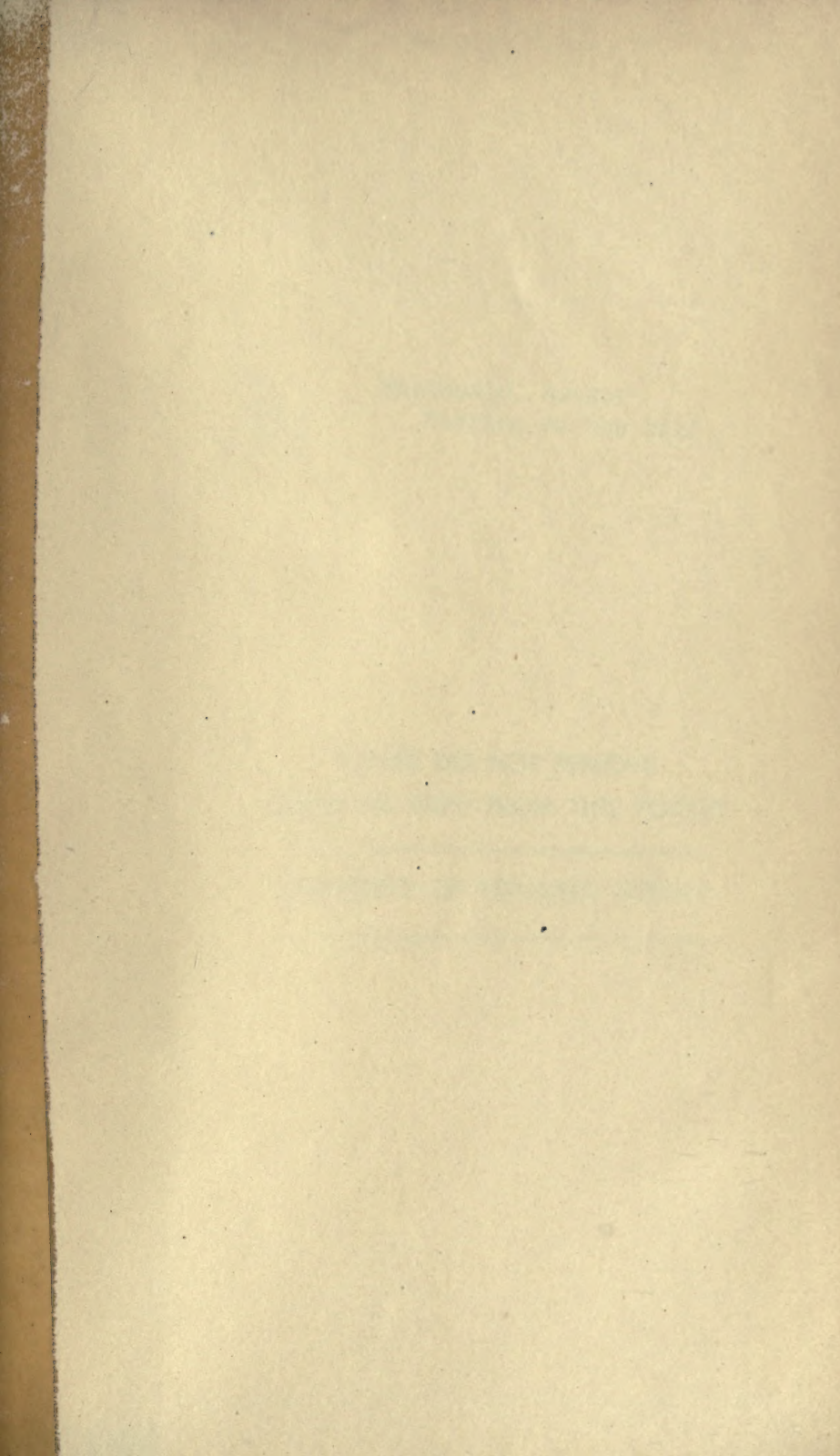
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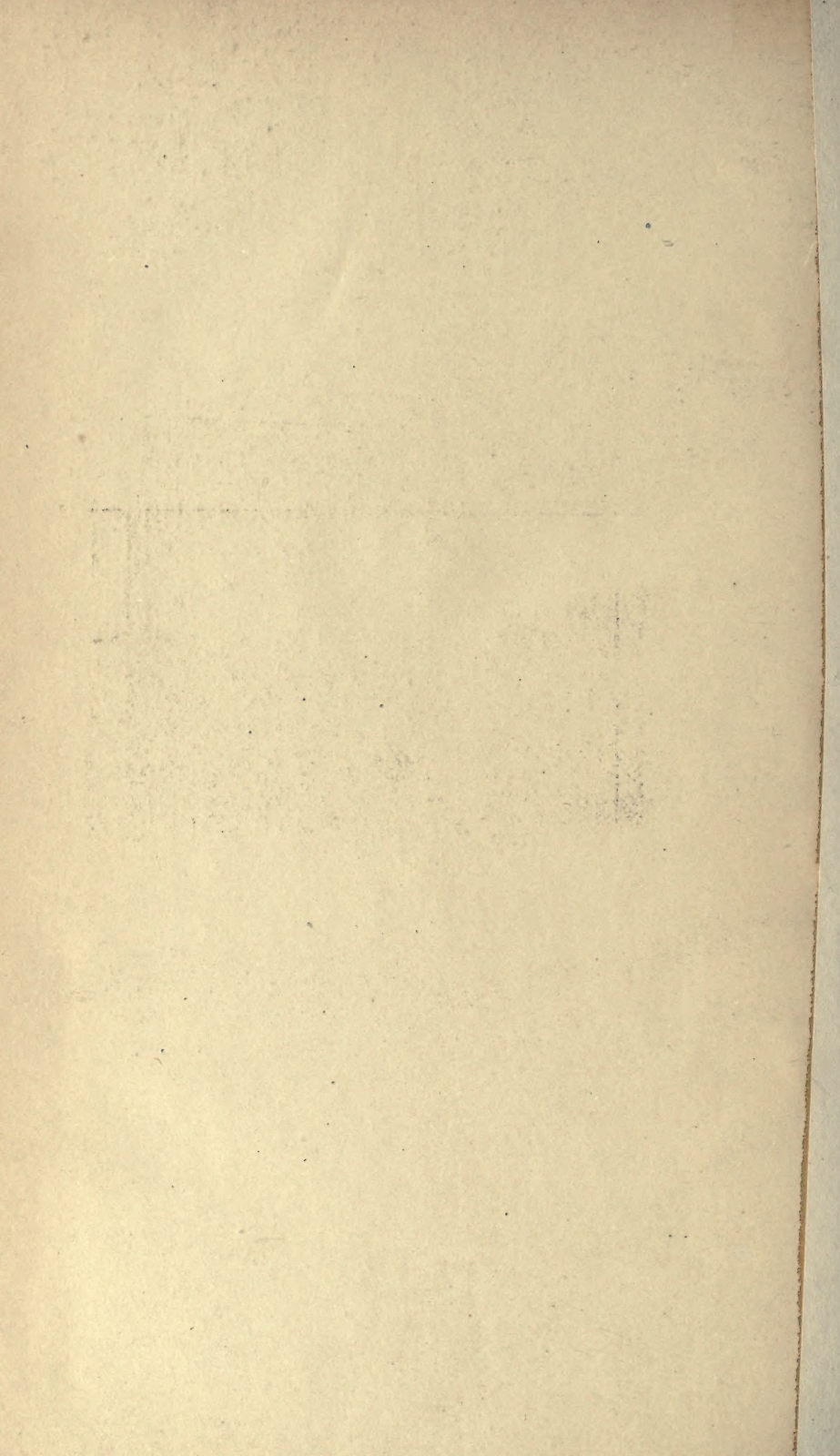
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